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MODERN TURKEY.

MODERN TURKEY.

BY

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AUTHOR OF

"RESOURCES OF TURKEY,"

ETC.

IN ONE VOLUME.

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TO

HIS EXCELLENCY MUSURUS PASHA

AMBASSADOR OF THE SUBLIME PORTE

THIS WORK IS DEDICATED

AS AN EXPRESSION OF

THE SINCERE RESPECT AND ESTEEM OF

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

In the first part of this work, I have endeavoured to point out the benefits to health that may be derived from a residence in Syria. My views on the subject are not theoretical, as I experienced those benefits in my own person. Indeed, I believe that a great many of the ailments to which the inhabitants of Northern and Western Europe are liable would almost infallibly obtain relief from a residence in the clear, dry, exhilarating atmosphere of Beyrout, and in the midst of the lovely scenery to be found on and around Mount Lebanon; notably, the earlier stages of consumption, and chronic chest complaints. Dyspepsia, hypochondriasis, and other affections of the digestive system, are

also relieved or cured by the united tonic effects of the mountain air and out-of-doors life that the charming climate almost compels one to lead; while shaken nerves and exhausted brains are restored to energy by a combination of the various influences of climate, scenery, travel, and absence from the causes of those conditions which have been left behind. Besides, in favour of Beyrout and Mount Lebanon, it may fairly be taken into account that they are near the site of the Garden of Eden, the cradle of the human race, and in a part of that country where the Jews, the chosen people of God, were specially directed to reside.

The account of the Empress Eugénie's visit to Constantinople was contributed by me, at the time, to the *Daily News*, but, considering the estimation in which that illustrious lady is held in this country, I have thought it desirable to preserve—though in a condensed form—a record of an historical event the like of which never occurred before, and may, probably, never occur again.

A portion of the second, and nearly the whole

of the third part of this volume was written during my recent residence at Constantinople; and I have to acknowledge, with thanks, the valuable suggestions and kindly aid of the Editor of the *Levant Herald*. I have required no other book of reference than the pages of the *Levant Herald*—a weekly journal which ought to be in the hands of every one interested, politically, commercially, or financially, in Turkey.

Imperial Ottoman Consulate,
Bristol, May, 1872.

N.B. A communication touching the matter in this volume had appeared from time to time in the Levant Times — as the author subsequently acknowledged in a letter to me and in a rectification of his preface which he published in the London papers.

Napier Hamly

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PART I.

MODERN TURKEY.

CHAPTER I.

BEYROUT.

IT has often been to me a matter of surprise that, considering the number of persons who yearly seek the south of France or Italy for the benefit of their health, so few choose Syria as a winter residence. The climate, particularly of Beyrout, is superior to many places in Europe frequented by invalids; while, for those predisposed to pulmonary complaints, it affords advantages that can hardly be found elsewhere. Hyères has long enjoyed the reputation of being an excellent locality for persons suffering from bronchial affections; yet it is much exposed to the *mistral*, in consequence of the absence of protecting hills on the north-west, and, in Winter, Spring, and Autumn, the cold north-easterly winds prevail to a considerable extent. Nice

has enjoyed a still higher celebrity, although the inconstancy of the winds is very great,—the temperature being subject to violent changes which are extremely trying to delicate or nervous organizations. The invalid is tempted out of doors by a brilliant sun, and then attacked by a cold piercing wind that neither clothes nor flannel can keep out. Dr. Meryon, who passed a season at Nice, declares that "there are more natives who die of consumption at Nice than in any town in England of the same amount of population." Naples, although possessing many advantages, cannot boast much of its climate, which is exceedingly changeable during Winter.* Cold, cutting winds prevail in the spring, while the scirocco, by its relapsing and paralysing influence, renders persons incapable, during its continuance, of either mental or bodily exertion. Even Madeira, which has long been considered the paradise of invalids, is not so favourably situated as is popularly supposed. Drs. Heineken and Gourlay, who practised in the island, state that no disease was more common among the native population than con-

* The 1st of December, 1870, at Naples, was like a day in July. On the 2nd, a bitter cold north-east wind set in; during the night it froze hard, and on the third it snowed heavily.

sumption; and Dr. Mason says that "affections of the digestive organs are a frequent cause of death with the majority of the inhabitants, and there are few places where the system is more liable to general disorder." The climate of Beyrout, on the contrary, is always moderate, and subject to less change than any of those places I have named. Asthma, bronchitis, and pulmonary disorders are unknown; the temperature is not subject to sudden vicissitudes of cold and heat; and the wind, from whatever quarter it may blow, never possesses any bleakness or ungenial chill. January and February are the only unpleasant months in the year, as then the heavy rains come on; but the air is always balmy, and the blue sky is seldom obscured for any considerable length of time. March and April are delightful months, as all nature, refreshed by the showers, looks bright and cheerful; the "green herb and the emerald grass" are once more renewed, the cactus overhangs the roads with its clustering blossoms, and the orange-tree puts forth its chaste and simple flower, loading the air with perfume. May and June resemble our finest Summer weather, while the climate, in October, November, and December, is much like that of May in

England. The months of July, August, and September are very hot in Beyrout; but the vicinity of Mount Lebanon affords means of varying the temperature to any extent that may be desired. Some of the foreign residents remain in Beyrout during the entire Summer, but the greater number send their families to the villages of Beit-Miry, Brûmanah, or Shemlîn. Beit-Miry is distant about one hour and a half, Brûmanah two, and Shemlîn five hours.*

Beyrout is a place of great antiquity, and became of considerable importance under the Roman emperors. Justinian called it the Nurse of the Law, and conferred on it the privilege of teaching Roman jurisprudence in its schools. Traces of the magnificent baths and theatre, erected by Agrippa, grandson of Herod the Great, were to be seen, some few years ago, on the north of the town; and even now, portions of tesselated pavement and columns of perfect finish are found in the gardens and on the seashore. The Romans gave the name of Felix to the

* There are three routes by which travellers can reach Beyrout from London:—First, *viâ* Brindisi to Alexandria, and thence by steamer. Second, *viâ* Vienna to Trieste, and thence by the Austrian Lloyds line of packets. Third, *viâ* Paris and Lyons to Marseilles, and thence by French steamer.

city, and after its destruction by Tryphon, it was rebuilt by Augustus, who thought it worthy to bear the name of his favourite daughter Julia.

The view of Beyrout, as the traveller approaches from the sea, is very fine. While still at a distance, the peaks of Mount Lebanon are seen in mid-air, surrounded by the bold outline of its undulating ridges. Gradually the outline becomes more and more distinct. Vast ravines are seen between the chasms that divide rock from rock, and huge masses loom forth like sudden creations out of chaos. Specks appear on the mountain side that presently expand into hamlets and villages; while, on higher points, the towers of numerous monasteries stand aloft in bold relief against the sky. The mountainous surface of the interior slowly spreads out like a diorama, and, as the steamer holds her way, the scene seems to unfold itself as if by enchantment. The houses scattered over the plain gleam in the morning sun from amidst their surrounding foliage, and the breeze from the shore comes laden with sweets from groves of citron and of orange. To the left, in the distance, is the snow-capped summit of Jebel-Sunnin;* and

* Jebel . . . Mountain. Deir . . . Monastery.
Nahr . . . River Râs . . . Cape.

in front, Beyrout herself, charmingly situated on the slope of a hill, her head, as it were, in the clouds, her feet bathed by the sea.

The houses, with their slender arches and flat roofs, surmounted with embrasures of stone or balustrades of wood; the picturesque rocks along the shore; the white-mulberry gardens and orange and citron groves; the terraces filled with flowers; the palms towering towards the sky; the various and lively colours of the walls; the minarets of the mosques; the grand and noble mountain; the atmosphere serene and bright;—all blend into a picture the most beautiful I ever beheld. In fact, there are but few places that can compete with Beyrout in the various inducements which it offers both to the traveller and the invalid. The country, too, all around is historical. There is scarcely a spot on which the foot treads, or over which the eye wanders, that is not rich in the brilliant memories of the past. Cyprus, on the one side, recalls the classic days of old when the lovely goddess arose out of the sea at Paphos; Tyre, on the other, awakens visions of princely argosies at anchor beneath marble palaces stretching to the water's edge. Farther on is Acre—before the mind's eye the red Cross of the Crusader sinks beneath the Crescent of Salah-ed-

dîn. Opposite is Carmel, whose "flowery top perfumes the skies;" and six hours thence is Nazareth, Mount Tabor, and Genesareth. Twelve hours from Beyrout is Damascus the beautiful; Baalbek is but forty miles distant; the Druse and Maronite villages of Mount Lebanon are in the vicinity; a visit to the Cedars forms a pleasant excursion; while the Nahr-el-Kelb and cave of St. George are only an afternoon's ride.

Life and property are perfectly secure in Beyrout. Murder, robbery, and other crimes so frequent in European cities, are nearly unknown, and a visitor might travel over all the surrounding country without the least danger of molestation. During my residence in Beyrout, I rented a small house, for the months of May and June, completely isolated on the borders of the Little Desert, and a considerable distance from any European habitation. My horse was picketed at night in the open air; my servant went home in the evening to his family, and I slept with much more security, probably, than I should have done under similar circumstances, in the suburbs of London. I have often, too, ridden by moonlight, attended only by an Arab groom, from the Nahr-el-Kelb (Dog-River) to Beyrout; and, at other times, from Beyrout to Beit-Miry with,

certainly, no fear, and, decidedly, more safety than in many rural districts of England.

The society of Beyrout, although limited, is agreeable. The foreign residents are very hospitable; many of the married ladies having a special evening in each week for receptions. There are two principal hotels; one in the town, the other, some little distance on the shore, at Râs-el-Beyrout. The latter, although not comparable with English hotels, is exceedingly clean and comfortable. The terms are ten shillings per day, everything, except wine, included. The house is beautifully situated, commanding an uninterrupted view of the sea; and on the right, looking from the balcony towards Lebanon, over the town and St. George's Bay, there is a picture of surpassing loveliness which I have never seen exceeded. Rents at Beyrout vary from twenty-five to sixty pounds a year, and furniture of a plain description is easily procured. Servants' wages are—for a good cook about two pounds, and a groom (Egyptians are the best) twenty-five shillings a month. A serviceable horse may be purchased for eight to twelve pounds, and, as barley is cheap, it can be kept for about two pounds per month. The necessaries of life are all very moderate.

Those animals that minister to the wants of man are abundant, while carnivorous and destructive animals are rare. The goats are large, and yield milk of superior quality. The sheep attain an unusual size, and their tails, terminating in a ball of fat, become so heavy that they can hardly drag them along: their flesh is excellent. Fish and game are plentiful. Grouse, partridge, snipe, quail, and wild duck are abundant in the season. Vegetables of every description abound;—beans, peas, lettuces, onions, melons, cucumbers, &c. The gardens are filled with the citron and orange. Aleppo sends the far-famed pistachio to market. Jaffa produces the delicious water-melon; Damascus—plums, cherries, peaches, and above all, the apricot, called, by the Persians, the seed of the Sun. In short, everything is there in profusion to satisfy material wants, to soothe the senses and charm the imagination. In its ethereal atmosphere, mere existence becomes enjoyment, for you have only to live to be happy; only to open your eyes to behold the brightest sky and loveliest landscapes; only to stretch out your hand to pluck the sweetest and fairest flowers, and gather the most delicate and luscious fruits.

To the stranger, everything in Beyrout con-

trasts remarkably with what he has been accustomed to in England. The Maronite, Armenian, and Druse; the Turk, Greek, and Arab; the Bedawîns, with their picturesque costume and wild restless eyes; the novel pictures of Eastern life daily seen in the bazaars;—all afford an ever-changing scene of amusement. In nothing, however, is the contrast greater than in the climate; November in London and November in Beyrout; from damp, and fog, and copper-coloured stifling vapour to blue sky, clear atmosphere, and bright sunshine.

> If all were free,
> Who would not, like the swallow, flit, and find
> What season suited him? In Summer heats
> Wing northward; and in Winter build his home
> In sheltered valleys nearer to the sun.

Syria has manifold attractions; but, after all, her great charm is the sun. Until you visit the East, you can hardly say you have ever seen the sun; comparatively, there is but twilight elsewhere. In Syria, you see and feel it; your heart is, as it were, filled with it—it is reflected everywhere. All your sensations give token of the change; and every feeling, every thought, becomes brighter and gayer. The cares which may have hitherto beset you appear to be lifted

from off your heart; you feel raised above the earth, and breathe, in reality, the air of heaven. There is no glare, for the sun shines with a soft and mellow light that makes the landscape look as if it calmly slept. No wonder the Parsees worshipped him.

The favourite walk is to the west of the town, along the sea-shore at Râs-el-Beyrout. There, at the various *cafés*, the pedestrian can observe the picturesque costumes of the people, as they sip their coffee, or inhale the fragrant tobacco of Djebail; some seated at the doors, others reclining on the grass, or on the rocks overhanging the sea,—everywhere forming groups the most various and picturesque. The hotel, I have mentioned, is situated on the Râs-el-Beyrout, and thence, towards evening, one of the finest views of the town and mountains may be obtained.

> Now upon Syria's land of roses
> Softly the light of eve reposes,
> And, like a glory, the broad sun
> Hangs over sainted Lebanon;
> Whose head in wintry grandeur towers,
> And whitens with eternal sleet,
> While Summer, in a vale of flowers,
> Is sleeping rosy at his feet.

At this hour, nothing can exceed the beauty of

the view. To the west, the sky is one sheet of burnished gold, shedding its brightness for miles over the waters. Here and there, the descending sun throws streaks of light across the many-coloured houses of Beyrout, and beyond, the varied and ever-changing tints of the mountains,—now bright green, now purple; at one moment, the deep gorges revealed to the eye, the next, lost in impenetrable shade; here the monasteries standing out in bold relief, there lost to view as if by magic,—form a picture which even Poussin or Claude Lorraine have never realised. Passing the Hôtel de Belle Vue, a narrow path winds along the rocky shore until, arriving at the potteries, it becomes wider and then forms a delightful promenade to the extreme point of Râs-el-Beyrout where the cliff rises two hundred feet above the level of the sea. The walk is pleasantly varied by proceeding over the sands and through the winding lanes, bordered by the cactus and numerous flowering shrubs, to the Grande Place and the barracks whence there is a beautiful view, overlooking the town, St. George's Bay, the Nahr-Beyrout and Lebanon. Often, from the barrack hill, have I admired the wonderful light and shade on the mountains, and the various changes in

the colour of the sea. In the morning the mountain casts its immense shadow over the waves, which then appear of a deep blue, lightly tipped with foam; at mid-day they are like billows of gold in the distance, and silver in the foreground; in the evening, when the breeze lulls and the sun declines, the sea is one vast mirror where the gigantic forms of the mountains are drawn with a softness of shading and a distinctness of outline most remarkable and perfect. Then, as the sun sinks more and more, the waves change from blue to violet, from violet to purple, through every gradation of colour, until, at length, darkness comes with tropical suddenness upon the scene, and all is wrapped in gloom.

The greatest benefit, perhaps, which an invalid can derive from a residence in Beyrout is the facility of taking constant exercise in the open air. The early morning walk, when the birds begin their song, is healthful and invigorating; the sun is not then too powerful; the air is cool, and the flowers, refreshed by the dew, give forth an exquisite perfume. In the afternoon, again, about two hours before sunset, a breeze from the west springs up which is exceedingly refreshing, and then every one is on horseback

or donkeyback in the Pine Forest,—the Rotten-Row of Beyrout. Dr. Lee, whose works on climate are well known, says, "A principal advantage which invalids derive from a Winter's residence in a favourable climate is that they are enabled to take daily and sufficient exercise in the open air; which, by causing free expansion of the lungs, by improving the functions of digestion, and exciting those of the skin to greater activity than would be the case in persons who remained in-doors, as also by inducing a more cheerful tone of mind, tends materially to rectify any abnormal condition of the blood, and by these means, better than by any other, to obviate the consequences of such abnormal condition when they have not been allowed to proceed too far." The climate of Beyrout appears to me to fulfil all those requirements for the invalid, as its mildness and beauty attract him constantly into the open air; and, when not walking nor on horseback, he can sit on the terrace of his hotel, or on the rocks overlooking the mountains, lulled into a peaceful and delicious reverie by the low murmur of the tideless sea.

CHAPTER II.

BEIT-MIRY.

BEIT-MIRY, one of the "mixed villages" of Mount Lebanon—inhabited by Druses and Maronites—is the favourite Summer resort of the European residents of Beyrout. During the months of July, August, and September, when the heat in the plains is excessive, a sojourn, even for a few weeks, at Beit-Miry is of great advantage to health. The air, particularly at night, is cool and invigorating, and the change of temperature bracing and agreeable. The scenery, too, all round this part of the mountain is grand and impressive. Deep ravines and rising eminences on all sides, the latter clothed with the richest vegetation;—the fig and the olive; the oak and the cedar; the fir-tree and the aloe; the citron and orange; the mulberry and the vine. All the paths over these hills are flanked with the vine

and fig-tree, which flourish in wild luxuriance without any assistance from man. Often, when riding from Beit-Miry to Brûmanah, I have plucked the clustering grapes from branches so closely festooned overhead as to almost shut out the sun at mid-day. Even in more elevated parts of Mount Lebanon, where nature seems to afford nothing for the sustenance of the people, numerous Christian villages flourish, and every inch of ground is utilized. Fruit trees, mulberry plantations, vineyards, and fields of grain abound, though there is scarcely a natural plain of twenty feet square to be seen. The inhabitants, however, meet this difficulty by building terraces, and thus, while retaining the water requisite to irrigate their crops, secure a portion of level ground sufficient to prevent the earth from being swept down by the Winter rains. By dint of skill and labour, the Maronites have compelled a rocky soil to become fertile. To avail themselves of the waters, they have made channels by means of a thousand windings on the declivities, or arrested the streams by embankments and reservoirs in the valleys. At other places, they have propped up the earth by terraces and walls, so that the mountain presents the appearance of a staircase or amphitheatre, each tier of which is a row of vines or

mulberry trees, and of which one hundred to one hundred and twenty tiers may be counted from the bottom to the top of a hill.

It is enchanting to sit upon the brow of a hill at Beit-Miry, sheltered from the sun by a fig-tree or vine, and contemplate the sublimity of nature apparent on every side.

> For now the noonday quiet holds the hill:
> The grasshopper is silent in the grass:
> The lizard, with his shadow on the stone,
> Rests like a shadow, and the cicala sleeps,
> The purple flowers droop: the golden bee
> Is lily cradled.

To the west, the plain of Beyrout stretches out before the eye, covered with the orange, the date, the pomegranate, and the banana; the palms, here and there, rearing their tall stems and slender branches in the air; the pines, so dark and solemn, contrasting with the bright colour of the sands; the hills around rising higher and higher, dotted with villages and monasteries; and, to the north, the Jebel-Sunnin rearing its snowy crest towards heaven. Few places, indeed, can compete with that glorious plain of Beyrout. There is the orange-tree, whose flowers have been compared to silver, and its fruit to gold; the fig, with its foliage of glossy velvet; the plane, with its rich

and brilliant bark; the luxuriant growth of the pine; the graceful flexibility of the palm; the rich verdure of the humbler plants, and prairies bright with the colours and fragrant with the scent of hyacinths, anemonies, and gilly-flowers. Beyond are the hills, with their varying tints, their contrasts of light and shade; afar off is the sea, with its glittering wave-crests and deep azure, reflecting on its surface every hue that fleets over the sky; while, standing out in bold relief against the clear horizon, are the frowning masses of the mountains bounding the prospect in the distance. Towards evening, when the wind sets in from the sea, a curious phenomenon, forming the most exquisite dissolving views, is sometimes observable at Beit-Miry. Vast layers and wreaths of cloudy mist rise from the waters and the plains, and, as they increase, unite, and thicken, they take the appearance of irregular accumulations of foam, or enormous heaps of wool that Titans, or Cyclops, or some fabled giants might be supposed to have shorn from multitudinous flocks, numerous as the sands on the sea-shore. Everything beneath is hidden from sight. After a time, these misty clouds descend gradually as they arose;—the hills and trees, villages and monasteries, appear-

ing to rise up out of a sea of foam, as if in the magical phantasmagoria of a dream.

In some of the valleys near Beit-Miry, the vegetation is so thick, and so completely covers the sloping sides, that it seems as if the very mountains were alive with herbage and verdure. An intermingled mass of fragrant plants, shrubs of delicate foliage, bunches of heather, and tufts of fern, are twined together with innumerable creepers, whose tendrils stretch everywhere and cling where they extend, their festoons hanging from branch to branch or from stone to stone; while, here and there, the ivy mats itself into a thick green coating up the side of the rock. In some places are little spots covered with lichens, growing in one dense mass,—the ground often covered a foot deep with a soft and close vegetable carpet, varied with every shade and hue, and far surpassing, in vividness and beauty, the fantastically figured fabrics of Turkish looms. All through the valleys, too, spring up, in wild profusion, the most beautiful flowers, whose lively colours and exquisite perfume diversify the landscape and embalm the atmosphere. The myrtle and oleander are there substitutes for our holly and thistles. The hyacinths, jonquils, and tulips fill the parterres; the lilies, so extolled in Scripture for their purity; the

anemone, said by the poets to have sprung, near this very spot, from the blood of Adonis; and the Narcissi,—

> The fairest among them all,
> Who gaze on their eyes in the stream's recess
> Till they die of their own dear loveliness.

Each feature of the landscape seen from Beit-Miry is lovely and sublime in itself, and all taken together make up one fascinating and incomparable tableau. The diversified surface of plain, valley, and mountain, with every variety of light and shade, every possible tint and colour of foliage and of rock, every form of tree and herbage; the river of Beyrout wandering like a silvery serpent through the vale; the wide expanse of sea, with its rocky nooks along the shore; the eternal and stupendous mass of Lebanon, with its crags and forests; the snowy peaks that shoot up and gleam in the sun like silvery steeples; the joyous though inarticulate voice of birds, and the hum of innumerable insects; the distant lowing of kine, and the strange bleat of the camel; the vast azure canopy of the firmament, against which the crags of the mountain, and the giant trees that seem to emulate the hills, stand out in dark and prominent relief, are all mixed and blended into a gorgeous scene that might be taken for fairy-land.

CHAPTER III.

MOUNT LEBANON.

THE southern portion of Mount Lebanon, called the Chouefat, the Chouf, and the Meten,—"mixed districts," inhabited by Druses and Maronites—is that generally visited by travellers. The Kesrawân, or northern portion, inhabited exclusively by Maronites, is less known, although its scenery is not at all inferior to that in the vicinity of Zahleh, Zibdâny, Djezzin, or Deir-el-Kamr. Frequent excursions can be made from Beyrout to every part of the mountain, but there is one excursion—to Ghazir, Harîsa, and Antoura in the Kesrawân—which will be found of especial interest. I remained only one night at each of these places, but I should advise any person that may follow the route indicated in the present chapter, to spend, at least, an entire day at Ghazir and Beit-Cash-Bow, as well as at Harîsa

and Antoura, thus extending the excursion to seven or eight days instead of four.

It would take months to travel over the Lebanon, to stop at all its beautiful sites, and visit all its romantic villages. It is everywhere mountainous, it is true, but some variety or some new feature is always presenting itself. I know of nothing more curative in its effect, or more likely to benefit the health of a dyspeptic invalid than a residence at Beyrout, and an occasional ride over those beautiful hills. It is well known that impressions made upon the mind are influenced, materially, by the condition of the body, and the one constantly re-acts upon the other. It is proverbial that the objective world takes the tone and tinge of our mind—that the sun has no brightness and the flower no beauty for the unhappy; while, if the heart is light, hope sanguine, and our prospects brilliant, the deepest gloom of a Winter night cannot sadden us. Every one of any sensibility must have experienced this, and we have well-known illustrations of the fact in such instances as the imbecile torpor into which the great Chatham fell when the hereditary malady that had so long racked his body seemed to retire inwards and paralyse his mind—when he retired to Hayes, and could

not even hear business mentioned without an attack of the nerves; in the anecdote about Ravaillac, or some other regicide, who declared that, if he had taken the cooling medicine he required, he should not have attempted the king's life: so true it is that

> Infirmity doth still neglect all office
> Whereto our health is bound; we are not ourselves
> When nature, being oppressed, commands the mind
> To suffer with the body.

No doubt the tone and state of the mind are often the result, not merely of the condition of our physical organism, but of external influence and circumstances. There is a continual reciprocal action going on between the outer world and our mind and feelings. Now, in Syria, the climate and scenery have all the elements for restoring any derangement of our corporeal functions. Skies ever sunny and serene; an atmosphere pure, translucid, and exhilarating; the entire aspect of nature combining the elements of the grand and the beautiful; the impressions produced by mountains towering to the skies, and landscapes replete with gentle loveliness:—all impress, with their various and cheering characteristics, the minds of those who are within their influence. The traveller over those mountains feels a buoy-

ancy that seems, as it were, to lift him from the earth; and turn which way he will, there are objects admirably adapted to soothe and charm the senses, to excite and ravish the imagination. No wonder, then, that he should be free alike from indigestion and low spirits, from lassitude and *ennui;* that the joyous brightness and beauty without, should light up a cheerful serenity within; that his mind should be in the healthiest and happiest state for receiving the gayest and most pleasing impressions, and that these should fix themselves in his memory, and be ever after recurred to with delight.

Leaving Beyrout by the bazaars, we mounted our horses in the Grand Place, and, in about ten minutes, passed the spot where, it is said, St. George slew the dragon.* A little further on,

* Some persons are so sceptical as to disbelieve the story relative to this terrible dragon, whose daily meal was a youthful virgin sent from Beyrout; until, at length, the beautiful princess, on whom the lot had fallen, was fortunately rescued by St. George. These unbelievers even assert that the marks shown on the wall, near the cave, are not the marks left by the Saint when he washed his hands after the combat, but, merely, stains left by the hand of time. It is, however, undoubted that St. George was a Knight of Cappadocia, of good family, and suffered martyrdom during the reign of Diocletian, A.D. 290. Thomas Dawson, who published a curious little book in 1714, says there is good reason to conclude that the Saint was held in

we crossed the old Roman bridge over the Nahr-Beyrout, and an hour's canter on the Mediterranean shore brought us to the Nahr-el-Kelb, or Dog-River, where we refreshed our horses, and then pushed on to Junêh, which we reached in about forty minutes. The village of Junêh is a favourite resort of the Beyroutines during the bathing season. The houses are built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the side of a hill, facing the sea,—terrace above terrace, to a considerable height, affording from each the most exquisite views of water, plain, and mountain. We breakfasted in a charming little cottage overlooking the bay, and, after a couple of hours' rest, commenced the ascent to Ghazir.

There is no actual road from Junêh to Ghazir, but the difficulties of the journey are amply repaid by the magnificent scenery met with in ascending the mountain. On the slopes and acclivities, tufts of shrubs and clumps of trees assume the most picturesque and even fantastic forms; some

great estimation among the English even in the Saxon period; but I am inclined to assign the reign of Henry II. as the epoch when we became intimately acquainted with the hero, as he was then raised to the rank of first tutelar saint in the calendar, upon the marriage of Henry with Eleanor, daughter of William of Aquitaine, who died fighting for the Holy Sepulchre, and whose patron saint was St. George.

growing in the shape of a cone, others spreading out like an umbrella, or forming a thick tangled mass of luxuriant foliage, like a colossal bush. Every variety of tint, shape, and size of leaf, too, is to be seen; a vast variegated labyrinth where the deep hue of the orange, the bright yellow of the lemon, the dark colour of the cypress, the leaden green of the delicate leaf of the mulberry, the beautiful pomegranate, innumerable parasitic plants hanging from the over-arching branches, —all mingle in a thousand wild and charming combinations, as novel as they are lovely. The ground itself is a soft carpet of green sward strewn with the brightest flowers; while, here and there, plots of barley wave and bend to the breeze, or the spreading carob covers the sylvan homestead of a peasant, with its garden full of brilliant-coloured plants, and its porch shaded by a clustering vine, under which you are invited to take rest and shelter. Milk, with bread and fruit, is offered to you, and a nosegay, at parting, testifies the good-will of the humble but hospitable little household. Continuing to ascend the mountain, the horizon beyond the plain seems to recede and widen, while the terraces left behind have a charming effect, which I can compare to nothing so much as a brilliant cloth or tissue of many

colours, all blended and arranged so as to produce a sort of symmetrical disorder; a wild, spontaneous harmonising of vegetable forms and colours, the beauty of which, without being seen, it is almost impossible to realize.

Two hours' ride from Junêh brought us to the fine monastery of Beit-Cash-Bow, at Ghazir, where we received a cordial welcome from the Armenian fathers. An excellent dinner, served in European style, with wines of Mount Lebanon and France, was, in due time, placed before us, and, after a pleasant chat over our pipes and coffee, I retired to a comfortable bed, and slept more soundly than I had done for years. The next morning, Sunday, we had an excellent opportunity of seeing the Maronites in their magnificent church, and, afterwards, walked across the hills to the Jesuit college at Ghazir. Our guide was the village doctor, but his professional emoluments, I fancy, were very trifling, as he willingly accepted six piastres (one shilling) at parting.

Returning to the monastery, we encountered a Maronite princess, attended by her maidens, —forming, perhaps, one of the prettiest living pictures I had ever seen. The princess's dress consisted of a blue silk pelisse, fringed with

gold cord, over a pink silk vest embroidered in gold; a rich shawl bound round her waist, loose trousers of yellow silk, and yellow leather papooshes. Her face was concealed by a white veil which hung from the tantoor,* but, as we stood admiringly, she withdrew the veil for a moment to take a look at the *frangi*, disclosing a face of perfect beauty, a complexion exceedingly fair, and those wonderful almond-shaped eyes that are so rarely seen away from the East. The dresses of her maidens, although less rich, were scarcely less picturesque. The costumes of the men were also very brilliant, consisting of a short red or blue embroidered jacket over a gay-coloured silk vest; a rich scarf round the waist, containing silver-inlaid pistols or ivory-hafted daggers; loose trousers fastened over the shoe by embroidered gaiters; and the head-dress of the country—the red tarbûsh.

* The tantoor is a conical tube of silver, from a foot to two feet in length, and about three inches in width at the bottom and one inch at the top. It is secured to a pad on the head by two silken cords, which hang down the back, and terminate in large tassels or knobs of silver. The narrow end projects over the forehead at an angle of 45 degrees, and supports a long white veil that falls gracefully round the shoulders, and, when required, covers the face. The tantoor is worn only by the married women.

The road to Harîsa discloses beauties of a different nature from those seen in the ascent from Junêh to Ghazir; more wild and grand, yet revealing, here and there, some charming spots of surpassing loveliness. It seems like an effort of nature to group into one great maze the most diversified and opposite characteristics of oriental scenery. Every emotion of our æsthetic faculties—our sentiment of the beautiful, our conception of the sublime—are here all called forth together, and arise in the mind at once. For hours over these heights, the place of destination is continually in sight, yet seems to recede as you approach; or, as we read in fairy tales, as if your horse seemed to move, or your feet perform the function of walking, without any progress, or one step in advance, having being made. Distance, seen across the vast expanse of open valley and through the clear transparent atmosphere, is almost inappreciable. We know that the inexperienced eye of a person confined in a cell from birth would take no cognizance of perspective, and see nothing in the finest landscape but a variously coloured surface. It is only when the sense of sight is rectified by the other senses, and confirmed by judgment — unconsciously, it may be, and without our taking

notice of it at the time—that we are able to judge of distances.

Thus, on visiting the Highlands of Scotland for the first time, the mighty masses of mountain and open sweep of moor and water make a stronger impression upon a stranger than on a person who has been accustomed to range over the hills, and whose eyes have become familiar with the prospect. The stranger is not so well abe to judge of distance and relative size, because he finds himself amidst scenery that is new to him; and his power of appreciating perspective, acquired from the top of Primrose Hill or the heights of Gravesend, altogether fails. From a little hillock called Belmont, at Stanmore, and also from Brockley Hill, on the St. Alban's road, the Crystal Palace at Sydenham can be seen, when the day is sufficiently clear—which, however, seldom happens—and it is difficult to believe that the edifice is at the distance we know it to be. On Mount Lebanon, this effect is heightened by the extreme clearness and transparency of the atmosphere. Places seen over vast tracts of valley seem close at hand, when, in fact, they are many hours' journey off. The traveller is thus often out in his reckoning; but even when deceived, he is not disappointed,

for he certainly would not surrender a step of the way,—leading as it does through a natural garden, where the spontaneous efforts of nature have surpassed all that art has ever accomplished.

Sometimes the path lies along the course of a torrent, the bed of which has been dried up by the Summer heats. On either hand, rocks, to the height of four hundred feet, rise like perpendicular walls. Gigantic blocks and boulder-like masses lie scattered irregularly in every variety of position, as if shot down and strewn about the surface at random. Some rest on their broadest side, firm and solid as a pyramid, and seem destined to remain fixed for ages; while others sit, fantastically, upon their apex, with such apparent instability that they appear as if a child could push them over. On emerging from these rugged gorges, you come out, from time to time, into some shady highland valley,—a little paradise of verdure; while, here and there, green flights of stairs lead up to eminences, like the steps of some vast altar erected to Nature in one of her most favoured haunts.

Villages appear perched, like birds' nests, on ledges of the cliff, or seem to hang upon the mountain's shelving side. Two of these villages will be so close together that a stone may be

thrown from one to the other, and the inhabitants of each can converse from their respective doors, yet a deep chasm intervenes, the path round which it will take a very long time to traverse. Ascending still higher up the mountain, more extensive views of sea and plain are obtained. Spread out, too, as in a maze, are wooded knolls and grassy valleys; waterfalls glittering in silver showers and bounding in spray from rock to rock. In one direction, perhaps, a wreath of mist envelops the landscape; while in another you see the welcome turrets of a monastery through the trees, and your attention is arrested by the rude harmony of the shepherd's pipe and the tinkling of the sheep-bells. Suddenly, the path seems brought to an end by a craggy ledge of rock, the side of which goes sheer down for some hundreds of feet; but the guide points out a narrow winding way between rugged masses, where the utmost caution is necessary, as a single careless step might send you headlong into an abyss so deep that escape, with life, would be impossible.

On these occasions, it is prudent to leave mules and horses to their own judgment and discretion, and, when not tampered with, they are never known to stumble. It is usual to account for their sure-footedness by saying—"It is instinct;" but

this explanation is about as intelligible as that of the doctor in the French comedy, who, being asked why laudanum put people to sleep, replied "Because it possesses a soporific quality." It is curious to see how the animals examine the path they are traversing, and how careful they are in making good their foremost foot-hold on the rock, before moving another step in advance. It would indeed seem as if their mode of acquiring experience was very much the same as our own. The sagacity of the Arabian horses, and their almost human qualities have become proverbial, but their extraordinary degree of polish, so to speak, arises from their constantly sharing the society of their masters, and from the education—for it is an education—which they receive. They may be said to eat, drink, and sleep with their owners—are their companions at home and abroad, share their habitations, and carry them with speed over the desert sands, into which an English horse would sink up to his knees. The colt always attends its dam, runs by her side when on a journey, and shares the caresses of her master and his family. By thus following the actions of its mother over the treacherous footing of the desert or the precipitous paths of the mountains, it acquires, almost without artificial training, a

degree of sagacity and dexterity that is almost incredible. During my residence in Syria, I possessed an Arab horse that carried me everywhere. He was wild like his race, and yet, with me, as gentle as a lamb. At the slightest motion of my hand, he would fly like the wind, or stop in an instant. When tired, we have lain down together, my head pillowed on his shoulder. He would follow me like a dog, and stand perfectly quiet for me to mount, yet it was a most dangerous feat for anyone else to try to get into the saddle. When leaving Beyrout, I parted from many friends, but I parted from none with greater regret than from my horse, Duroc.

Five hours' ride from Ghazir brought us to the monastery of Harîsa, where we received even a more hearty welcome than at Beit-Cash-Bow. We dined with the brothers in the refectory, and the repast, though not so varied as that of which we partook on the day previous, was exceedingly good; the hospitable Prior producing, for our special consumption, some exquisite old Lebanon wine, which, he said, had lain in the cellar for a number of years.

Early next morning we started on our journey from Harîsa; some new beauty in the scenery displaying itself at every step, until in the midst of a

site teeming with a luxuriant flora—the mulberry, the fig, the orange, the sycamore, and the pine—the charming village of Antoura lay in a valley before us. At each turn in the descent, its wonderful fertility and profuse vegetation, its picturesque position, surrounded by lofty mountains, astonished and delighted me; and I exclaimed with the Eastern poet, "If there be a paradise on earth, it is this—it is this!"

We were courteously received by the superior of the Lazarist college, and shown over the school-rooms, dormitories, dining-hall, and playgrounds. The pupils to the number of three hundred come from Beyrout, Aleppo, Damascus, and other towns in Syria; Persia, Egypt, and even from Nubia and Abyssinia. They are boarded, lodged, and educated for fifteen hundred piastres (about £12 10s.) per annum; or including all extras with the exception of clothes, for two thousand piastres (about £16 13s 4d.); and are taught the French, Italian, Latin, and Arabic languages; writing, arithmetic, and the usual branches of a European education. We dined with the boys at the professors' table, and found the food excellent. The following morning I had a delicious breakfast, as, on opening my bedroom window, I found the golden fruit of an orange-

tree hanging like bunches of grapes within my reach.

It added much to the picturesqueness of the scene, as we rode over the hills on leaving Antoura, to meet some of the pupils returning after vacation, mounted on horses or mules, and followed by camels bearing their brightly painted boxes. As the boys passed, they all saluted after the manner of the country;—a form of salutation which is much more graceful than that prevailing in many other countries. At New Guinea the mode is certainly picturesque; for the people place leaves of trees upon their hands as symbols of peace and friendship. An Ethiopian takes the robe of another and ties it round his own waist, leaving his friend partially naked—a custom which in a cold climate would not be very agreeable. Sometimes it is usual, as a sign of humility, for persons to place themselves naked before those whom they salute;—as when Sir Joseph Banks received the visit of two Otaheitan females. The inhabitants of the Philippine Islands take the hand or foot of him they salute, and gently rub their face with it;—a proceeding which is, at all events, more agreeable than that prevailing with the Laplanders, who have a habit of rubbing noses, applying their own with some degree of force to that of the person

they desire to honour. The salute with which you are greeted in Syria, is at once graceful and flattering. The hand is raised, with a quick but gentle motion, to the heart, the lips, and the forehead; thus intimating that the person who salutes is willing to think, speak, and act for you.

At a distance of about an hour from Antoura, we rested at the convent of Deir Beshâra, where sweetmeats, confections, and mountain wine were cheerfully placed before us. The nuns could only speak Arabic; but, from their retreat behind a screen, they conversed for some time by means of an interpreter. Passing through the little village of Zook, where the superb gold and silver brocades, sold in the bazaars at Beyrout, are manufactured, we soon arrived at the Nahr-el-Kelb, and rested under the pleasant shade of the Hôtel Pittoresque. Here, after a little time, we partook of a simple repast, consisting of fish, caught in the river after our arrival, pilaff and fowl. Figs from Smyrna, pistachios from Aleppo, oranges from Jaffa, and apricots from Damascus, formed our desert, with wines of Cyprus and Lebanon cooled in pressed snow from the peaks of Jebel-Sunnin. Before we rose to depart, the sun had disappeared below the horizon, and, as

there is little or no twilight in Syria, the shades of night suddenly closed around, wrapping mountain, sea, and river in the deepest gloom. The moon, however, was near the full, and soon began to brighten up the landscape; its soft and gentle light presenting a marked contrast to the fiery glow of the sun, and displaying a wonderful scene of loveliness and grandeur. On every object—in the sky, on the dark frowning mountain, in the broad and shining bosom of the sea —was written, "Behold the Eternal!" The very air breathed the spirit of devotion—the earth and the heavens seemed instinct with the power and presence of the Omnipotent, unseen yet felt.

We sent our horses home by the shore, and returned by water. The sea was perfectly calm; the Arab boatmen sang their favourite songs, and a pleasant row of an hour and a half brought us to Beyrout.

CHAPTER IV.

TRAVELLING IN SYRIA AND PALESTINE.

TRAVELLING in the East is rather an expensive recreation. It is not necessarily so, but it becomes expensive in consequence of the mode of travelling usually adopted. Few persons visit Palestine and Syria without the prescribed accompaniments of dragoman, servants, horses, mules, tents, &c., &c.; while the old beaten track is still followed:—Jaffa *viâ* Ramleh, to Jerusalem; from Jerusalem, by Nablous, to Nazareth; from Nazareth to Tiberias and Damascus; from Damascus to Baalbek; from Baalbek to the Cedars, and from the Cedars to Beyrout. This route is by no means an unpleasant one; on the contrary, it has many attractions, and its novelty possesses, for the romantically inclined, an almost indescribable charm.

The wandering life, from day to day, under a pure and cloudless sky; the encampment at night, on the brow of a hill or in some sheltered valley, beneath the dome-like vault of heaven, spangled with its countless myriads of stars, are replete with pleasurable sensations unknown to the tourist in Europe; but there are many incidental disadvantages, not the least being the expense. The mode of travelling, besides, is only suited to those who are in the enjoyment of vigorous health, and not at all adapted to ladies or invalids. The most economical, and, in my opinion, pleasantest way of seeing the country is for the tourist to establish his head-quarters at Beyrout, as excursions can thence be made to the most interesting places in Syria and Palestine at a very trifling cost, and with little or no fatigue.

In the following notes of an excursion to Nazareth and Tiberias, I have purposely omitted a description of those places:—for has not each sacred spot of the storied land, from Gaza to Aintab, been "done" over and over again by book-making travellers of every stamp. The route indicated, however, is out of the ordinary track of tourists, and will serve to show the facility with which excursions can be made from Beyrout.

Leaving Beyrout by the Austrian Lloyd's steamer, at ten o'clock p.m. on Friday, we landed next morning after a pleasant passage of eight hours, at Kaiffa, the ancient Sycaminum of the Romans, beautifully situated at the foot of Mount Carmel. Here, my excellent friend, Her Majesty's Vice-Consul, gave us a hearty welcome, and, after breakfast, we mounted our horses, and started, at one o'clock, *en route* for Nazareth. The road from Kaiffa winds, for some time, through fields and gardens to the village of Belled-esh-Sheikh, which is reached in about an hour. Half an hour thence is the village of Yahoor, near the river Kishon, which we crossed, and an hour and a half more brought us to El-Hartîe, about midway between Kaiffa and Nazareth. Leaving El-Hartîe, we entered a forest of dwarf oaks intermingled with trees bearing white blossoms like the orange; the ground being one carpet of flowers, in which the anemone was most conspicuous. It was a delightful spot—

> A seat where gods might dwell,
> And wander with delight.

Passing through this forest, we came in sight of the plains of Esdraelon and the mountains of Gilboa. In an hour from El-Hartîe, we rode at

a canter through the village of Jeidâh, and half an hour more brought us to the spring of Semûnieh —the Simonias of Josephus.* As we reclined to rest ourselves here, several women approached to draw water at the spring, clad in their picturesque costume, and appearing in every respect as in the time of Christ. Nearly two thousand years have passed, and the dress, habits, and customs of the people remain unchanged.

Many of the wandering Bedawîns, armed to the teeth, looked very formidable as they passed on their fleet horses, but we greeted them with civility; and here I may remark that I have never, in any part of Palestine or Syria, received aught but courtesy and respect from the natives. If they are treated kindly, they will be respectful; but many travellers, particularly English and American, think it necessary to assert a superiority, and, in some cases, suffer in consequence. In another hour and a half—six hours altogether from Kaiffa—we rode down the steep hills that encompass Nazareth, and alighted at the hospitable dwelling of the monks of Terra Santa. The sun had set; night had quickly succeeded day, and the town looked picturesque as the

* It was in this place that the Romans attempted, during the night, to seize Josephus.

lights twinkled in the darkness. The heart quivered, and awe crept over the frame, for, *here*, we stood on holy ground. On this very spot, perhaps, our feet trod in the footsteps of Christ, for here his youth was passed, and over these hills he wandered.

The next day, Sunday, we visited the Church of the Annunciation—second only to that of the Holy Sepulchre—the Greek Church, the Well of the Virgin, the Mensa Christi, the presidents of the Greek and Latin communities, &c. On Monday, as the rain—the "latter rain" of Scripture—prevented our going to Tiberias, we paid a visit to the superior of the Church of the Annunciation, who received us with every courtesy, and, after coffee, sent one of the brothers to conduct us over the chapel built on the site of St. Joseph's workshop. Above the altar, in this chapel, there is a most exquisite painting. In the centre stands Joseph in his workshop, holding the handle of a carpenter's axe, the edge of which rests on a block of wood; his eyes are directed, with a mingled expression of affection and reverence, towards the child Jesus, who, with a book in his hand, the contents of which he is evidently expounding, sits on a low stool in the foreground. On the left sits the Virgin, eagerly listening to

her son, and casting upon him looks of tenderness and love. It was a picture of home, and recalled in full force to my imagination the early scenes of our Saviour's life. In that very room where I stood, our Lord had sat, and talked, and was obedient unto his parents. There he assisted Joseph; there he grew up to manhood ere he went forth on that saving mission which ended with his death. In and about Jerusalem, the remembrances are sad and gloomy, but at Nazareth, they tell of happiness and peace. I could not soon tear myself from the place made sacred by these associations, and I do not envy the man who could stand there unmoved. I plucked a wild flower from the garden trodden by our Saviour's steps,—a mute memento of the hallowed spot.

The clouds, which had hung over the valley during the morning being now dispersed, we rode to the hill that, from the West, overlooks Nazareth, and on which stands the lonely wely, or tomb, of Neby Ismael. There is a glorious prospect from the summit of this hill, and the air is deliciously pure and fresh. The western part of the great plain of Esdraelon stretched out at our feet. To the left, Mount Tabor towered above the intervening hills. On the West, Gilboa

and Hermon, and the mountains of Samaria stretching from Jenîn to the chain that extends from Carmel. Mount Carmel itself with the town of Kaiffa on the shore beneath, and the town of Acre washed by the Mediterranean on the shore beyond. To the North, extends one of the vast plains of Palestine, called El-Bûttauf, which yields a tributary stream to the Kishon. To the South, can be seen a large village on the side of a hill, the ancient Sepphoris, now called Seffûrieh. Beyond the plain of El-Bûttauf, extend long ridges of hills running east and west, and, in the extreme distance, stands Safed, "the city set upon a hill." To the right, there is a curious grouping of hills and mountains, above which a still loftier chain rises in the distance far away.

Most persons have probably felt, at some time or other, how much the pleasure derived from scenery is enhanced by certain familiar reminiscences, and how much more attractive nature appears when associated with the remembrance of some dear friend, or the forms of those we loved. If such be the case, what pleasure must be felt in the contemplation of scenes like these, where every spot is hallowed by recollections dear to our hearts, and where, at every step,

remembrances of Him who loved us appeal so strongly to our imagination. Every place near Nazareth is, in fact, full of interest, but the road to Tiberias is, perhaps, more so than any other. Passing by Kefr-Kenna, the Cana of Galilee—where the house is shown in which the miracle was performed of turning water into wine—we come to the Mount of Beatitudes. Further on is the scene of the miracle of the loaves and fishes, and then before us is Lake Gennesareth. There is little in Tiberias itself worthy of observation, if we except the church, which is said to have been built on the spot where stood the house of Peter.

It is the associations in the mind that invest everything around with interest, for although doubts may be cast on many traditional sites, there is no doubt that on these waters our Lord walked in the stillness of the night; on these waters the tempest-tossed ship of the disciples laboured amidst the storm. At Tiberias, there is little or no accommodation for travellers; the King of the Fleas, it is said, holds his court there, and his subjects, consequently, swarm in great numbers. The best way to visit Tiberias is to leave Nazareth at daybreak, going north-east over the hills to Er-Reineh, a small village half

an hour distant, and thence to Kefr-Kenna; then passing the village El-Meshad, situated on a high hill to the left, and so by Lûbieh to Gennesareth :— returning the same afternoon in time to reach the summit of Mount Tabor, and behold the magnificent view and glorious sunset.* From Mount Tabor to Nazareth is a ride of an hour and a half.

The attention and hospitality of the monks of Terra Santa, during our visit, could not be exceeded. The bed-rooms in the monastery were extremely neat and clean, and the fare placed before us was excellent. We left Nazareth early on Wednesday morning, and, after an hour's ride, came to the fountain of Seffûrieh,† which

* When I visited Mount Tabor, a solitary hermit had made his home on the summit. He had lived in the Crimea; but, having dreamt that he should pass the remainder of his life in prayer and meditation upon a mountain in Palestine, he made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and wandered till he came in sight of Mount Tabor, which corresponded exactly in appearance with the mountain he had seen in his dream. After some time, he discovered the ruins of the Church of the Transfiguration, which had been destroyed in A.D. 1263 by the Sultan Bibars. He excavated until he reached several chambers, some of which he roofed in and occupied.

† It was here, in A.D. 1187, that the flower of the Christian chivalry assembled, to the number of fifty thousand, before the fatal battle of Hattîn. Count Raymond, of Tripolis, advised that they should remain encamped near the fountain, and await Salah-ed-dîn; but the proud and impetuous Grand Templar

was peaceably occupied by women washing clothes in the stream. The women of Nazareth and the neighbourhood do not veil their faces, but walk erect with a graceful and elegant carriage. They are tall and handsome, the profile being really beautiful, with that straight line of forehead and nose we see in the masterpieces of ancient Greece. Their head-dress is peculiar. Instead of the gold or silver coins, worn in their long tresses by the women of Beyrout, the Nazarene women wear a multiplicity of coins—overlapping one another and attached to a pad on the head—so placed that they form a sort of frame, through which their faces appear as in a picture. Bracelets and silver anklets give a further addition to the picturesqueness of their costume. In half an hour from the fountain, we reached the village of Seffûrieh—the Sepphoris of Josephus and Diocæsarea of the Romans—which, in the time of Herod Antipater, was the largest and strongest city of Galilee. Leaving the ruins of the church, built on the site of Joachim and

prevailed upon the weak King, Guy de Lusignan, to march towards Tiberias, and the result was a final blow to the power of the Crusaders. A few days after the battle of Hattîn, the victorious Salah-ed-dîn encamped at the fountain, whence he continued his triumphant march to Acre.

Anna's house, to the right, we shortly entered the flowery plain of Zabulon, and, ascending the hills near Shefâ-Omar, came in view of the Mediterranean and the town of Acre. Crossing these hills, we descended into the plain of Abilîn, and, on reaching the heights above the village—four hours from Nazareth—we, unexpectedly, came upon an encampment of Bedawîns under the command of Salihl Aga, by whom we were most hospitably received.

CHAPTER V.

A DAY WITH THE BEDAWÎNS.

I HAVE seldom beheld a more animated or picturesque scene than that which presented itself as we halted on the hill overlooking the village of Abilîn. The dark tents of the Hawâras dotted the hill sides, and stretched far away into the plain beyond. Hundreds of richly caparisoned horses stood around. Crowds of handsome, though rather wild-looking men,—some reclining under the tents, others sauntering up and down, or placidly smoking their chibouks; while, apart, on a rich Persian carpet, sat Salihl Aga, chief of the tribe, surrounded by his principal officers, numerous secretaries, with silver ink-holders stuck like daggers in their scarfs,—and several distinguished-looking Arabs, who, I subsequently learned, were relatives and guests. As we hesitated to advance, Salihl Aga at once

sent his first lieutenant to beg us to alight, and, almost at the same moment, our horses were taken possession of by the grooms, while we willingly obeyed the chief's request. As I approached, Salihl Aga and his officers arose; the latter giving place to me on the right hand of their chief, whose graceful salutation I returned by bending low, and placing my hand on my heart, my lips, and my forehead. Taking our seats on the carpets spread upon the ground, Salihl Aga and I repeated our salutations, and, then, according to Oriental etiquette, I saluted each officer in form, one after the other, beginning with the one nearest to me, every man responding by a bow, and laying his hand on his mouth and forehead. Two Nubians then approached with two nargilehs exactly alike, and presented them, at identically the same instant, to me and the chief, who bowed, as if he would render to me the homage due to a superior.* Coffee was then brought to us in china and silver filigree cups, the same ceremony being observed as with

* In the East, paradoxical as it may appear, the guest is, for the moment, the host. When a Mussulman receives you into his house, he, for the time, ceases to be master. He places himself, his servants, and his house, at your disposal, and, while he supplies all your wants, *he* appears rather as the guest, and *you* as the host and superior.

the nargilehs,—the chief and I emptying our cups and returning them simultaneously to the attendants, so as to make our salutations at the same moment. Coffee was afterwards handed to the officers, who, as they returned the cups, again saluted; and, the strictness of etiquette being apparently relaxed, conversation became general. Salihl Aga then informed us that they were celebrating the wedding of his son, Mohammed Ali, with the daughter of his brother, Akili Aga; the bridegroom having attained his eighteenth year, and the bride having seen fourteen Summers.

After a little time, servants approached with silver jugs containing cold water, which they poured over our hands, while other domestics presented fine napkins richly embroidered in gold. This ceremony completed, a huge dish of boiled rice, with a boiled lamb on the top, was placed before us. Leben, or sour goat's milk, was poured here and there into the rice, a small quantity of which was taken up in the palm of the hand, rolled into the form and size of a pigeon's egg, and then transferred to the mouth. We had neither knives nor forks;—the lamb being torn and eaten with the fingers. I enjoyed this breakfast immensely. The rice was well

boiled; the lamb tender; the tail delicious; and having ridden during four hours in the pure morning air, I was decidedly hungry. At first, I was rather shy of the tail, but the chief lieutenant tore a piece off and presented it to me, —an act of especial courtesy—and it was really excellent. To strangers, this eating with the fingers seems unpleasant; but, like many other things, "it's nothing when you're used to it." These roving sons of the desert do not encumber themselves with much baggage; and besides, the ablutions so scrupulously performed, before and after meals, prevent any idea of uncleanliness. After breakfast, native musicians and dancers—the latter being dressed as women—appeared upon the scene. The performance, although novel and graceful, was rather sensuous, and I was not sorry when Salihl Aga gave the signal to mount our horses, and proceed to the more stirring business of the day.

The chief, at the head of about five hundred horsemen, now led the way down a hill to a plain of considerable extent, where an opposing force of similar strength was drawn up under the command of his son, Mohammed Ali. The women and children assembled on the heights, and the combatants, as they faced each other,

looked as if they had met to decide the fate of Abilîn. For some moments not a man moved. At length, Salihl Aga advanced leisurely and alone towards the ranks of the enemy, and, brandishing his long spear almost in their faces, challenged them to the combat. Three of the enemy, one after the other, put spurs to their horses and sprang forward to capture their challenger, who instantly wheeled, then turned suddenly, again wheeling, and leaning so low over his horse's neck, to evade the enemy's blow, as to be for a moment lost to sight; then rising and reining in his splendid Arab, he discharged his pistols at the foe as they passed him in their headlong speed. Pursued again, he turned once more, and, throwing the reins on his horse's neck, unslung his carbine, discharging it in the face of his would-be captor as he advanced upon him; then, seizing the reins, guided his horse at full speed into the ranks of his own men, who, in their turn, advanced to the attack, and charged the enemy up to the opposite line. Thus, in a short time, the entire forces on both sides were engaged, and the whole field became the scene of a great battle, in which the eye followed two principal figures,—the chiefs of the contending hosts. The young bridegroom exhibited wonderful skill in eluding the attacks of

his pursuers; wheeling in an instant on his nearest foe, the bridle thrown carelessly on the neck of his steed, while he unslung his carbine, which in a real contest would have brought down many an antagonist. Salihl Aga himself, in the excitement of the fight, let fall his turban and gold-embroidered cloak,—exhibiting his shaven crown, with one long plait of hair floating in the wind; and, as he led on a charge, uttering his shrill war-cry, it was difficult to fancy the combat otherwise than real. The prancing and excited horses; the brilliant and various costumes of the combatants; the white burnouses streaming in the air; the clatter of steel and silver housings; the shouts of the men and loud reports of pistol and musket; the chivalric bearing of Salihl Aga, and the noble mien of Mohammed Ali; the women and children on the heights between the village and the plain;—all made up a scene the wildest and most picturesque I ever beheld.

The sham-fight over, the sport of casting the djerreed commenced, the activity required in which exceeds even that with the spear and pistol. Each horseman singles out an adversary, against whom he hurls his djerreed with considerable force, the skill consisting in catching it at the critical moment, and flinging it back again before

the attacking party can escape. This sport is not unattended with danger, as a well-directed blow from a djerreed has frequently been fatal. Sometimes, when it is found impossible to catch the djerreed, the Bedawy almost throws himself from the saddle, and holding on to his horse's neck, lets the weapon pass over him; then, swiftly wheeling, pulls the djerreed from the ground, and hurls it at his retreating antagonist. The horse performs a conspicuous part in this tourney, as upon his sagacity and perfect training depends much of his rider's success.

The bridegroom, having now proved his valour, returned in triumph to the village. Most of his men had dismounted and followed on foot with drawn swords, two of the principal officers walking at either side of his horse;—their swords crossing over the animal's shoulders. Mohammed Ali held a bouquet in his hand—a love-token which, according to a custom of the tribe, he must bring back to his bride, otherwise the marriage could not be consummated. Instances have occurred where a rival has attacked the bridegroom and carried off the love-token, and as its possessor can claim the bride, this part of the day's ceremony always possesses a special interest. As the *cortége* advanced, a band of men, armed

with swords, rapidly descended the hill, while an equal number of the young chief's followers rushed to the front. For a second or two, they stood facing each other, the bright steel glittering in the sun, and then the swords clashed,—beating time, with alternate strokes, to a strange wild dance, as they all proceeded towards the village. The crowd beat time with their hands, uttering shrill cries of heli-li-li-li-li-li-li, until the bridegroom alighted, and, being taken possession of by the women, disappeared from sight.

We bade farewell to our kind host, and, leaving Abilîn, entered the fertile plain of St. Jean d'Acre, through which a pleasant canter, over delightful green turf, brought us, in three hours, to the town itself, where we passed the night. The next day, Thursday, we inspected the fortifications, and then rode round the bay of Acre, about eight miles, to Mount Carmel, where we were hospitably received at the monastery of Elias,—the finest in the Holy Land. On Friday, at eight a.m., we embarked at Kaiffa on board one of the Austrian Lloyd's steamers for Beyrout.

CHAPTER VI.

SYRIA, PAST AND PRESENT.

WHEN Greece was in her infancy, and long before Rome had even been founded, the coast of Syria was covered with magnificent and wealthy cities. On the north stood Aradus (the modern Rouad); eighteen miles to the south, Tripolis; at a similar distance, Byblos (Djebeil), with the temple of Adonis; again, farther south, Berytus (Beyrout); at a like distance, Sidon; and, finally, about fifteen miles farther stood the "Queen of the Waters," the stately Tyre. From the latter city arose commerce, civilization, the arts and sciences, and above all, that great instrument of social progress, the gift of letters. To its inhabitants, the Phœnicians, we are indebted for the knowledge of astronomy and arithmetic, as well as for the discovery of weights and measures, of money, of the art of keeping accounts or book-

keeping, for the invention, or at least for the improvement, of ship-building and navigation, and for the discovery of glass. They were also famous for the manufacture of fine linen and tapestry; for the art of working in metals and ivory; for their skill in architecture, and, especially, for the manufacture of that rare and costly luxury, the Tyrian purple.

A formidable rival, however, at length competed with Tyre, and the trade of the latter was, to some extent, transferred to Alexandria —that great city founded by the Macedonian conqueror. Nevertheless, Syria lost nothing of her material prosperity, for, when subsequently reduced to a Roman province (B.C. 65), the commerce which had created her wealth received an unexpected impulse, and found a new source of profit in the luxurious habits of her masters. Another and more remunerative market was immediately opened, as the conquerors, having once tasted the delights of Asia, soon felt wants unknown to their frugal forefathers, and eagerly demanded her perfumes, her silks, and her precious stones, which they paid for with the spoils of the world. The ports of Syria continued to send forth ships filled with rich and costly merchandise; with gold, silver, tin, and other metals; with

vessels of brass, slaves, mules, sheep, and goats; pearls, precious stones, and coral; wheat, balm, honey, oil, spices, woven silk, and wine. Berytus (Beyrout) was famous for its immense exportation of corn, oil, and choicest wines. The cedars of Lebanon furnished the Romans with wood for the manufacture of magnificent ornaments, as well as for the domestic architecture of the rich, and the adornment of the temples of their gods. The dates of Syria were well known; for Galen, in one of his treatises, mentions their properties, and compares them with those of Egypt. The plums and other fruits of Damascus appeared, among various exotic luxuries, upon the tables of epicures; and Virgil tells us of delicious species of pear, the cultivation of which had been, in his time, introduced from Syria into Italy.

After the fall of the Roman ascendancy (A.D. 638), this wondrous and classic land became the scene of many contests, and the battle-field on which the destinies of many kings were decided. Under the reign of the Caliphs, however, commerce again revived, and civilization made greater progress in two centuries than the world had ever seen before. The cities of Syria were re-embellished, an architecture of the highest order gave a charm

to the buildings, and everything that human ingenuity could accomplish was effected for the prosperity and welfare of the country. History records the grandeur and magnificence of Haroun-al-Raschid, and the astonishment of Charlemagne at the presents sent to him by that Caliph, amongst which were perfumes, pearls, jewels, rich stuffs, arms, and a mechanical clock worked by water, that then appeared a wonder in Europe. Haroun-al-Raschid, although he had to pay an army of five hundred thousand soldiers, and had built many palaces in different parts of his empire, was yet able to give his son, Al-Mamoun, two millions four hundred thousand denarii of gold; and when that prince was married, a thousand beautiful pearls were placed upon the head of his bride, and a lottery was opened in which each prize was either a house or a piece of land.

Notwithstanding, however, all the vicissitudes through which the country has since passed, the Syria of to-day is as rich and fertile as the Syria of a thousand years ago. Upon her fruitful soil, wheat, barley, maize, and rice, spring up with the same luxuriant abundance. The sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco, those modern sources of wealth, abound; and the white mulberry trees

afford food for myriads of silkworms, which supply the manufactories of Lyons with their precious products. Limestone, sandstone, basalt, slate, coal, iron, and copper are plentiful in the mountain districts; timber of every description may be had for the felling, while sycamores of enormous size spread their branches wide enough to cover a caravan with their grateful shade.

Here are plains and valleys where everything useful in the vegetable kingdom is produced, by the most superficial cultivation, in rich and prodigal abundance. Gardens where the rose, the orange-flower, and the jasmine mingle their perfume into one delicious odour. Avenues of vine and fig-trees shade the roads; growths of oleander follow the course of the rivers; red-flowered grass blends its hues with a thousand flowers that enamel the meadows; above is the beautifully blue vault of heaven, and between stretches the clear ocean of pure, pellucid atmosphere. In the poetry of the Turks, this favoured region has been called "the odour of Paradise;" in that of the Hebrews, "a garden planted by God for the first man;" and in that of the Arabs, it is described as a country "where the mountains bear Winter on their heads, Autumn on their

shoulders, Spring in their bosoms, while Summer is ever sleeping at their feet."

For some years past, a considerable improvement in the commercial prosperity of Syria has been everywhere apparent; and if the traffic between India and Europe, so long carried on through the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, returns to its more direct course by the Mediterranean and Persian Gulf, this improvement will naturally continue. The royal cities of Nineveh and Babylon are, it is true, no more, and the mean towns of Mosul and Hillah alone mark the places where they stood; but the great rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates, which contributed to their grandeur, are still capable of being made important arteries of trade. The Jordan, although only sixty feet wide, is, in some places, twenty feet deep, and might easily be rendered navigable; while the Orontes rushes through the plain with a velocity that has induced the Arabs to call it El'-Asy, or The Rebel. The maritime cities of Syria are despoiled and neglected. Tyre, whose "merchants were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth," has become "a place for the spreading of nets in the midst of the sea;" but the old Berytus still remains, bereft of her artificial splendour, yet possessing those natural

beauties which time cannot destroy, and reviving, by her increasing trade, the memory of the vast commerce she once enjoyed, and the greatness to which, from her advantageous position, she is likely again to attain.

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

THE EMPRESS EUGÉNIE'S VISIT TO CONSTANTINOPLE.

THE visit of the Empress of the French to Constantinople in the Autumn of 1869, although without much political importance, was historically interesting as the first occasion on which a crowned head had visited the Court of the Padishah. Since the Crimean War, it is true, some imperial and royal personages, amongst them the Prince and Princess of Wales, have been the guests of the Sultan, but they were all outside the "Divine" circle to which fortune and her own deserts had raised the beautiful Countess de Montijo; and "Eugénie, Impératrice" was, therefore, the first and—on the 13th of October, 1869,—the only Christian Sovereign who had looked upon St. Sophia since the time of the Crusades. The reception of Her Majesty was, consequently, of the most splendid description,

worthy, in every respect, of the exalted host and illustrious guest.

In the reception of the Emperor of Austria, some days later, there was, perhaps, more ceremonial, more etiquette observed; but in that of the Empress of the French there was, together with the honours due to her rank, a warmth and cordiality on the part of the people which I have never seen equalled in the East, except on the occasion of the present Sultan's visit to Egypt, in the month of April, 1863. The countless multitude of men and women that lined the banks of the Bosphorus, crowded the streets of Pera and Stamboul, and thronged to the review at Beïcos, went not so much to pay homage to the wife of the great Emperor, as to admire a woman the fame of whose virtues and beauty had reached them; and that feeling found expression in the address presented by Salih Bey, on the part of the municipality, when he gracefully alluded to the courage and abnegation shown by Her Majesty on visiting the sick in the cholera hospital at Amiens.

Every one has, at some time or other, when staying at country houses in England, felt much more "at home" in one place than in another. There is an indescribable some-

thing that tells us at once we are welcome, and, as a result, everything affords satisfaction and pleasure. From the moment the Empress's foot touched Turkish soil she was saluted with the name of *mussafir*,* and from the Sultan himself down to the meanest *hamal*,† there was an expression almost of affection in the welcome with which she was greeted. Her Majesty plainly saw this, and therefore appeared to thoroughly enjoy herself. Almost her last words on parting from the Sultan were—"I have been for a week past dreaming a delightful dream."

On Saturday, October 9th, the three ironclads, *Mahmoudié*, *Osmanié*, and *Azizié*, left for the Dardanelles, under the command of Admiral Ibrahim Pasha, and the following day (Sunday, 10th,) his Highness A'ali Pasha, the Grand Vizier, after an audience with the Sultan, embarked on board the *Sultanié*. His Highness was accompanied by the Ministers of War and Marine, the President of the Admiralty Council, and the Grand Chancellor of the Imperial Divan. His suite was composed of Méhémed Djemil Pasha (Ottoman Ambassador to Paris); Réouf

* *Mussafir* means a guest, and the person of a guest is sacred in Turkey.

† *Hamal*—a porter.

Pasha, First Equerry to the Sultan; Mahmoud Bey, Secretary General of the Council of State; Aali Fuad Bey, First Translator of the Imperial Divan; Serkis Effendi, Secretary General of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; together with the Aides-de-Camp Sami Bey and Hassan Effendi. The *Sultanié* was followed by the Sultan's yacht, the *Pertevi-Pialé*, on board of which Réouf Pasha embarked at the Dardanelles, and, accompanied by the iron-clads, proceeded to meet the Empress as she entered Turkish waters from the Piræus. The French Ambassador, M. Bourée, also left with his suite the same day on board the despatch boat Ajaccio, together with the ship of war Forbin.

The weather during the week had been very wet and stormy. Hail fell in the neighbourhood of Smyrna, and several casualties were reported from the Black Sea. Umbrellas and overcoats had become a necessity; but on Wednesday, the 13th of October, the morning broke calm and beautiful over the Anatolian hills, and the sun, tipping with gold the countless minarets of Stamboul, announced that we had entered upon the pleasant season of the second Summer. From the flat-roofed terrace of the house I occupied in the Grand' Rue de Péra, just opposite

the Galata Tower, a magnificent view was obtained; extending, on the left, up the Bosphorus as far as the Palace of Beglerbey; and on the right, over the Sea of Marmora to the islands of Halki and Prinkipo, with, in the far distance, the mountains of Bithynia and the snow-crowned summit of Mount Olmypus. In front, across the Bosphorus, was Scutari (the ancient Chrysopolis) with its melancholy-looking cyprus grove and Turkish burial-ground. Then Kadikeui (the ancient Chalcedon), and nearer, across the Golden Horn, the beautiful panorama of old Stamboul, from Seraglio Point past the Sublime Porte, the mosques of Saint Sophia, of Sultans Achmet, Bajazet, Solyman, and Mahmoud; the beautiful tower of the Seraskeriat, the ruined aqueduct, the old walls, and Eyoub to the dark cypresses of "the place of a thousand tombs."

From an early hour every one was astir, and the streets were filled with, perhaps, a more motley group than could be seen in any other city in the world. Men from all quarters of the globe, Franks and Turks, Persians and Greeks, Jews and Armenians, Circassians and Ethiopians, Copts and Nubians, Hindoos and Egyptians, all wending their way to some spot upon the shore whence a good view might be obtained of the

coming spectacle. Numerous steamers, including the *Taurus* and *Neva*, belonging to the Messageries Impériales, started for the Marmora at ten a.m.; but the Empress did not arrive for some hours afterwards. The imperial yacht, *Aigle*, passed the Dardanelles at half-past one a.m., and, as she steamed fifteen knots an hour, found herself off San Stefano, in the Marmora, shortly before noon; but the French Ambassador and iron-clad fleet were "nowhere." The captain of the imperial yacht evidently hesitated to proceed further, and waited on and off this point for upwards of an hour, until at length the Sultan's yacht, the *Pertevi-Pialé*, came up and led the way into the Bosphorus.

At two p.m. exactly, the *Aigle*, with the Empress on board, passed Seraglio Point under a booming welcome from the batteries at Scutari and Tophané; and, as the yacht approached Beglerbey, the salutes were taken up by the heavy guns of the frigates anchored off Salihbazar and Dolma-Baghtché, while, from the Giant's Grave to the Maiden's Tower, the hills on either side exchanged their thundering echoes till the *Aigle* came to her moorings at the buoy placed for her especial use at Tchengel-Keni Bay, a little above the palace. Three thousand and

thirty shots were fired. All the men-of-war, as also many of the foreign merchant-ships in the Horn, were flag-dressed from taffrail to truck and jib-boom; the fleet manned yards and simultaneously fired a royal salute as the yacht neared Tophané; while along both sides of the Bosphorus, wherever an opportunity occurred, troops were drawn up in a double line, and every available space was crowded with spectators. The harbour was a mass of bunting, and over the British Consular buildings and Post-office floated the national ensign, in honour of the Consort of our imperial ally.

The *Aigle* is, or was, a magnificent steam-yacht, and the double-gilt cables, running round the hull a little apart from each other, formed a very ornamental addition to her appearance. The tri-coloured flag floated from the main, and attracted attention from the magnificence of its embroidery. The blue and red stripes contained each fourteen bees embroidered in gold, and the white stripe eight bees, four above and four below, with the imperial cipher also in gold on the white ground. The cabin was decorated in white and gold, and on the quarter-deck a spacious saloon was erected, the whole evincing an amount of comfort, taste, and elegance worthy of its illustrious occupant.

A considerable delay took place after mooring the yacht at Tchengel-Keni Bay, before the Sultan went on board, as the French Ambassador had not arrived from the Dardanelles. Some of the Sultan's caïques, with the coxswains clad in green, pulled leisurely round the yacht; then Réouf Pasha, First Equerry of the Sultan, boarded her, but in a short time returned to the Palace, when almost immediataly afterwards His Majesty came alongside in a magnificent state-barge, built expressly for the Empress. Loud cheers from the *Aigle* and the numerous steamers on the spot greeted the Padishah as he mounted the port gangway ladder, and, saluting first in Oriental fashion, shook hands with his lovely guest. His Majesty wore the Grand Cordon of the Legion of Honour, and his dark blue coat was well set off by a pair of white Cashmere trousers striped with gold.

The Empress, it is no mere common-place to say, although a little thinner than when I had last seen her in Paris, looked very beautiful. She was dressed in what I believe is called a "costume," the entire robe being of one material. The dress was straw-colour, and fitted her with matchless grace; yellow leather boots, and a small straw-coloured hat, with a white feather,

completed her toilette. In a very few minutes Her Majesty, followed by the Sultan, descended to her barge, and, sitting side by side, they were slowly rowed by twenty caïquejies to the landing stage of Beglerbey Palace, where, at ten minutes to three p.m., His Majesty, stepping first on shore, gave his arm to the Empress, and led her into the Seraï.

The scene at this moment was very striking, as the Ministers of the Porte and high dignitaries of the Palace were in attendance. The troops, drawn up in double line, paid military honours, and the splendid band of the Sultan received his Imperial visitor with the French national air of "La Reine Hortense." On entering the Palace, the Empress complimented His Majesty on the magnificent appearance of his Body-Guard drawn up in the vestibule and on the staircase; and, in the grand drawing-room, they conversed together pleasantly for abont ten minutes. The Sultan then presented the Ministry and high functionaries of the Porte. This ceremony concluded, His Majesty took leave of the Empress and returned to Dolma-Baghtché in his own state-caïque, the men-of-war still manning yards, and again firing an imperial salute.

The delegates of the French colony, as well as

the civil and military functionaries of France resident in Constantinople, were then presented to the Empress by the Count de Brissac, Her Majesty's Chamberlain; M. Bourée, the Ambassador, not having yet arrived. She questioned each upon the mission with which he was entrusted, and appeared to be well informed on the subjects of mines, forests, roads, and railways. The manager of the Messageries Impériales having mentioned that he had detained the steamer for Marseilles until the following day (Thursday), Her Majesty replied that, although the sea had been rough, she had prepared all her correspondence on board, and regretted that any delay should take place in the mail, adding, "The interests of the public should always take precedence of ours."

After the presentations, which lasted an hour and a half, the Empress retired to her private apartments, and, about six o'clock, re-appeared in a white satin dress for the purpose of paying a visit to the Sultana Validé. On the arrival of Her Majesty at Dolma-Baghtché, she was received at the quay of the Palace by His Highness A'ali Pasha, the Grand Vizier; the Sultan himself awaiting her on the staircase ascending to the drawing-room. His Majesty descended two

steps, and then giving his arm to the Empress, conducted her, accompanied by only one Maid of Honour, across the throne-room to the entrance of the harem. Here the Sultana Validé (the Sultan's mother) and the Bach-Kadyn (first wife of the Sultan) received Her Majesty. There was no one present, besides Madame Myran Bey, who acted as interpreter, but Prince Joussouf Izzed-din-Effendi (the Sultan's eldest son), two little Princesses, and five or six Kasnadars, or confidential women of the harem. This visit over, the Empress was conducted to the dining-hall, where two thrones were erected for their Majesties, and a banquet of the most sumptuous description was served.

The Empress sat on the right hand of the Sultan, and next to Her Majesty was the Grand Vizier, A'ali Pasha, who acted as interpreter. To the left of the Sultan sat the French Ambassador, M. Bourée, who had arrived at about 5 p.m., and then, at either side, the suite of the Empress. Mustapha Fazyl Pasha, brother of the Viceroy of Egypt, was also present, as well as Kibrisli Mehemet Pasha, formerly Grand Vizier, and Mustapha Naïsh Pasha, Minister without portfolio. The Ministers of the Porte, beside the Grand Vizier, were Kiamil Pasha, President

of the Grand Council; Mehemet Ruchdi Pasha, Minister of the Interior; Hussein Avni Pasha, Minister of War; Mahmoud Pasha, Minister of Marine; and Sadyk Pasha, Minister of Finance. The Sultan was particularly gallant and courteous to his guest, who was accompanied by her nieces —Mlle. Marie Stuart, Marquise de la Raneza, and Mlle. Louise Stuart, Marquise de Vandungello. The other ladies present were the Comtesse de la Poeze and the Comtesse de Nadaillac, together with the Maids of Honour — Mlles. Marion and de Larminat, and Madame Redel, governess of the Scoto-Spanish young ladies, d'Alba.

The gentlemen in the suite of the Empress were — Prince Joachim Murat, the Duke de Huescar (nephew of Her Majesty), General Douay (aide-de-camp of the Emperor), M. de Surville (captain of the Aigle), Count de Cossé-Brissac (chamberlain), Count Regnault de St. Jean d'Angély, the Commandant Reffyé, and Captain Clary (officers of artillery). All the arrangements were under the care of His Excellency Kiamil Bey; and it is said that Marco Vido, maître-d'hotel of the Imperial Palace, proved himself in every respect worthy of the occasion. The following was the *menu* which,

although served in the European style, contained some delicious Turkish dishes,—Consommé à l'Impériale; Riz de veau, à la Villeroy; Beurek; Bar, à la Validé; Filets de bœuf, à la Régence; Côtelettes de chevreuil, aux truffes; Cailles, à la Lucullus; Chaud-froid de filets de dindonneaux, à l'Anglaise; Suprême de faisan à la Circassienne; Cronstade de foie gras, en Sultane; Filets de rougets, à la Parisienne; Punch, à la Romaine; Haricots verts; Asperges; Patligian dolmassi; Tzarchi Kebabi; Chapon; Bécasses rôtis; Pilaff; Ananas, à l'Impératrice; Seraï lokmassy; Caimakli Ekmek; Cadaiff; Glaces printanières. After dinner, coffee was served in the grand drawing-room, and, the assembled guests having retired into another apartment, the Sultan and the Empress, with His Highness A'ali Pasha, still as interpreter, remained in conversation for upwards of an hour.

At 9.30 p.m., Her Majesty returned in the Sultan's yacht to the Palace of Beglerbey, and was saluted on her passage by a splendid exhibition of fireworks; all the men-of-war being outlined from stem to stern, and from water-line to masthead, with a brilliant display of Bengal lights.

The palace of Beglerbey, on the Asiatic shore,

is situated on one of the most beautiful of the many beautiful spots upon the banks of the Bosphorus. Close to the water, it is on three sides enclosed by a curtain of verdure which extends over the slopes of the rising hills that form the foot of Mount Borougourlu. If the exterior of the palace is elaborately ornamented, the interior, to a still greater extent, displays all that luxury and magnificence with which Oriental monarchs love to surround themselves. Prodigies of Moorish decoration meet the eye everywhere; the ceilings and walls are inlaid with gold and fantastic designs in thousands of colours blending harmoniously together; hangings of golden tissue in various patterns fall round the windows and before the doors, while the choicest furniture, the chefs-d'œuvre of Sèvres, and the extraordinary productions of China and Japan add to the general effect. The principal entrance is from the south, overlooking the garden, whence a rich staircase of a double spiral form leads to the grand drawing-room or "salle d'honneur." On the left, there is a large room *à coupole*, and on the right, at the side next to the Bosphorus, is the throne-room in the Moorish style, and altogether in marquetry, at the end of which are large niches supported by columns of rare

woods encrusted with ornaments in ivory of the most exquisite delicacy. An ornamentation of the same kind decorates the different panels forming the basement and the spaces between the niches; while a frieze composed of a series of small columns, divided by festoons in mosaic, runs round the upper part of the cornice. At the bottom of this room, raised some height from the floor, is placed the throne, resplendent in gold and precious stones. In that part of the building, opposite to the throne-room, the Empress's bed-room was arranged, and furnished in every particular after the model of the one occupied by Her Majesty in the Tuileries. The dressing-room, especially, was prepared with the greatest care, so that nothing should be wanting which the usages of Europe might require, or the most fastidious feminine taste could exact. The requisites for the toilette, provided by a Parisian upholsterer, were consequently of the richest description; the art of the goldsmith and the talent of the jeweller having been combined to produce an ensemble of the most superb character. From the private apartments you enter the grand drawing-room, round which runs a colonnade; splendid lustres hang from the ceiling; candelebra of exquisite workmanship are

attached to each column; Persian carpets cover the floor; Turkish divans of brocade and embroidered velvet are relieved by luxurious sofas of European fashion; magnificent pier-glasses adorn the walls; the whole combining Western comfort with Eastern display.

This saloon gives access to the bath-room, which was so much admired by the Empress that the architect not only presented Her Majesty with a model, but, by order of the Sultan, sent to Paris sufficient marble in a perfect state of preparation for the erection of a bath on the same plan. There are three compartments in this bath. The first room is called the *frigidarium;* thence you enter into the *tepidarium*, which is but moderately heated; and then into the third apartment, or *calidarium*, where the temperature is at the highest point.

The bath-room properly so called, that is the *tepidarium* and *calidarium*, is composed of pure white marble, the ceilings being formed in the shape of a dome through which the light is admitted in such a subdued and singular manner that the vault has the appearance of being filled with some translucid substance. From the "salle d'honneur," a private staircase leads to a room beneath, altogether of marble, in the centre of which there

is a basin fed by three fountains of most beautiful design, and surrounded by divans, sofas, &c. In this room there are also four immense bronze vases, ornamented with sculptures representing combats of wild animals, which are considered *chefs-d'œuvre* of Parisian workmanship.

The gardens of the Palace, perhaps the most wonderful of the whole as a work of art, are disposed in terraces rising one above the other to a great height, each filled with the choicest flowers. On the topmost of these terraces, a miniature lake has been formed, ornamented with grottoes, and shaded by the parasol pine, magnolias, willows, and various trees that give forth a delicious perfume. The view, when seated in one of the caïques on this lake, particularly at sunset, is most illusive and extraordinary; for, as nothing is seen beyond but the summits of the hills, the pellucid atmosphere above, and the golden sky in the distance, you can almost imagine yourself following the sun, upon some unknown sea, suspended in the midst of the air.

On Thursday, at eleven a.m., the Sultana Validé visited the Empress at the Palace of Beglerbey, and, in the afternoon, Her Majesty went to Stamboul, where she was enthusiastically

received by thousands of true believers. I do not think there could have been fewer than ten thousand Turkish men and women in the court of the Seraglio when the Empress arrived, and she appeared to charm all by the condescension and elegance of her manner. The women were even more excited than the men, and one old lady, replying to the remarks of her *yashmaked* companions relative to the absence of state ceremonial, cried out, "She does not want the *Saltanat* (Imperial parade), for she has it in herself; she carries it with her in her lovely face and graceful form."

Her Majesty, simply dressed in blue silk, with a small white hat, was in an open carriage drawn by four horses, and accompanied by Djemil Pasha, Ottoman ambassador to Paris, and the maids of honour, Mlle. Marion and Mlle. Larminat. Prince Murat, M. Bourée, French ambassador to the Porte, Kiamil Bey, Grand Master of the Ceremonies, and General Douay, were in a second carriage; the rest of Her Majesty's suite following in other court equipages, but without any state display, beyond an escort of mounted gendarmerie. The palace of Top-Capou, the mosques of Saint Sophia and Sultan Selim, the bazaars, the tomb of Sultan Mahmoud, and the *Hasné*, or Imperial

Treasury, were successively visited. Her Majesty appeared to take great interest in some of the costly curiosities accumulated in the latter building, particularly the rich collection of ancient armour and coats of mail worn by the Sultans, the most remarkable of which is that of Sultan Murad II., conqueror of Bagdad. The headpiece of this suite is of gold and silver, almost covered with precious stones; the diadem surrounding the turban is composed of three emeralds of the purest water and about seven to eight centimètres in size, while the collar is formed of twenty-two large and magnificent diamonds. In the *Hasné* there is also a curious ornament, in the shape of an elephant of massive gold, standing on a pedestal formed of enormous pearls placed side by side. There is also the table, thickly inlaid with oriental topazes, presented by Catherine of Russia to the Vizier Baltadji Mustapha, together with a very remarkable collection of ancient costumes, trimmed with rare furs, and literally covered with precious stones.

The divans and cushions formerly used in the throne-room of the Sultans were carefully inspected by the Empress and her ladies. The stuff of which the cushions are made is pure

tissue of gold, without any mixture of silk whatever, and is embroidered with pearls weighing each about 3,600 drachmas. Children's cradles of solid gold, inlaid with precious stones; vases of immense value in rock-crystal, gold, and silver, encrusted with rubies, emeralds, and diamonds; daggers, swords, and shields, beautifully wrought and richly jewelled, all tell a story of ancient wealth and grandeur, when the Ottoman power was a reality, and Western Europe trembled before the descendant of the son of Amurath. It was thought that the Empress would return by Isserkedji-Iskelessi, where the municipality had laid down some magnificent Persian carpets; but she re-embarked at Yali-Kiosque, and returned at about 5.30 p.m. to Beglerbey, where a *dîner intime*, to which the French ambassador and Djemil Pasha were invited, closed the programme of the day.

On Friday morning, the 15th, at 10 o'clock, the Empress received the foreign ministers in the grand drawing-room at Beglerbey. Mrs. Elliot (now Lady Elliot), wife of the English ambassador, and Madame Ignatieff, wife of the Russian minister, together with Mmes. Uebel, Ehrenoff, and Stourdza, were also presented. Her Majesty,

who wore an amber satin dress trimmed with mauve velvet, spoke in English to Mrs. Elliot, and expressed great pleasure at meeting with a compatriot, as she was herself, she said, half a Scotchwoman. After the reception, Her Majesty gave a private audience to His Highness Mustapha Fazyl Pasha, brother to the Viceroy of Egypt, and then crossed the Bosphorus to the Djam-Kiosk at Dolma-Baghtché to witness the procession of the Sultan going to Mosque.

From an early hour the neighbourhood of the palace was thronged with a compact multitude of red-fezzed and turbaned men, whilst Turkish women, clad in snowy yashmaks and glowing coloured feridjies of every shade, lined the road, at either side, from the grand entrance to the Mosque at Béchiktach. A double line of guards kept the route, and at a few minutes before twelve, Prince Izzed-din-Effendi, in the uniform of a colonel, and wearing the grand cordon of the Osmanié, passed before the Kiosk, at the windows of which the Empress and her suite were seated. Immediately afterwards followed the generals and colonels, riding two abreast, preceding some files of superior officers on foot. Then came, on horseback, the President of the Dari-Choura, the President of the Council

of Marine, the President of the Council of the Imperial Guard, the Admirals, the Grand Master of the Artillery, the Ministers of War and Police, and, lastly, His Highness A'ali Pasha, the Grand Vizier. At a short distance came the Sultan himself, mounted on a splendid white charger, richly caparisoned; and immediately behind followed the body-guard—who are selected from the best families of every race in the empire, and wear, each of them, their own national costume—several led horses in magnificent trappings, and an escort of picked imperial troops. As His Majesty passed slowly along, the bands stationed at intervals struck up the Sultan's march, and the soldiers shouted "Long live Sultan Abdul Aziz; may he live for ever!"

As His Majesty passed the Djam Kiosk, the Empress rose, and the Padishah graciously bowed, saluting at the same time with his hand in Oriental fashion. It was an imposing sight, and as the cavalcade of pashas of every rank, with dazzling gold embroidery on their saddle-cloths, and uniforms studded with *medjidiés* and *nishan-iftiars*, moved down the long line to the music of the imperial band, the ensemble would have compared favourably with any court procession to be seen elsewhere in Europe. After the

passage of the Sultan, the Empress visited the Sweet Waters of Europe, and subsequently the Sweet Waters of Asia—the beauties of which have been so frequently described—where she was received by an immense crowd of Turkish ladies, who make this delightful retreat their usual promenade on Fridays. In the evenings the Grand Vizier dined with the Empress at Beglerbey, and it was nearly midnight when his Highness returned to his Yali at Bebek on the opposite side of the Bosphorus.

On Saturday, there was a grand review of the troops at Hunkiar-Iskélessy. The Porte, as well as the public offices, was closed, and the Bosphorus was covered, almost from sunrise, with innumerable steamers and caïques, bearing thousands of eager holiday-makers to the beautiful valley of Beïcos. About 2 p.m., the Sultan and the Empress arrived at the Kiosk constructed for the occasion, and as soon as the Imperial party were seated the march past began. The Kiosk was a magnificent specimen of Moorish architecture. On the right, where the Empress sat, floated the Imperial flag of France with its golden bees; and, on the left, over the Sultan's head, a gentle breeze from the Euxine spread out the once formidable standard of the Crescent and the

Star. The entrance was draped with crimson and green velvet, the Turkish colours, richly embroidered in gold; and as their Majesties took their seats under the verandah, surrounded by their respective suites, the immense multitude burst forth into a long-continued hearty cheer. During two hours the troops, consisting of about twenty thousand men under the command of Omar Pasha, defiled before the Padishah and his illustrious guest, the latter expressing to her evidently gratified host her pleasure at the splendid sight, and making, from time to time, some flattering remarks as the admirably-equipped regiments of Circassians, lancers, and light dragoons passed by. After the review, which lasted until half-past four o'clock, the Sultan and the Empress, followed by their suites, drove in an open carriage to the ancient Kiosk of Hunkiar-Iskélessy, where they dined; and about ten p.m. His Majesty conducted his lovely visitor back by water to the palace of Beglerbey. The wonderful beauty of the scene as H.M.'s steamer floated down the current is said to have moved her deeply. The hills of Beïcos, and the banks on both sides of the Bosphorus were lit up as if by enchantment. Every house and palace was illuminated;—the Yalis of the Grand Vizier, the

Viceroy of Egypt, Kiamil Pasha, Mustapha Fazyl Pasha, and Kiamil Bey being conspicuous for the taste and profusion of lights displayed. Fires burned all round the camp, and myriads of coloured lamps, festooned in every variety of design, shed a soft gleam over the water, while from rafts and ships flew thousands of rockets bursting in a blaze of diamond light. The fleet burned Bengal lights, and from Buyukderé to the Golden Horn, torch and lamp outvied the brightness of the moon, which shone in a cloudless sky. To add to the wonders of the night, a continued dropping fire was kept up by the twenty thousand troops on the heights of Yeni-Keni, Kalender, and Therapia, which was answered by the artillery in the distance; the whole appearing rather like a dream of fairy-land than a reality of every-day life.

The magnificent reception—national it may, in every respect, be termed—given to the Empress, culminated on Sunday, when Her Majesty entered Pera for the first time. After breakfast, the Empress crossed in a caïque from Beglerbey to the Palace of Dolma-Baghtché, in the court-yard of which state-carriages were awaiting Her Majesty and suite. The Empress's carriage was drawn by six splendid horses richly caparisoned. Troops

lined the entire route from Dolma-Baghtché to the Palace of the French embassy, while the Grand' Rue, from the Taxim to the Galata-Seraï, was festooned at either side with flowers pendent from standards bearing many-coloured flags, and decorated alternately with the Imperial eagle and the Crescent and the Star. The street itself was strewed with fresh gathered leaves of trees, and the windows of the houses, hung with pieces of rich tapestry, were filled with the feminine *élite* of Péra, dressed in their most bewitching of toilettes.

A triumphal arch had been erected by the municipality at the entrance of the Grand' Rue, and as the Empress's carriage stopped close to the Sultan's portrait, which ornamented the left side of the arch—that of Her Majesty being on the right—the acclamations of the people were such as had never before been heard in the streets of Pera.

After receiving an address presented by Salih Bey, president of the municipality, Her Majesty proceeded to the Armeno-Catholic Church of St. Marie, where high mass was celebrated. On the arrival of the Empress at the church, eight of the principal Armenian laymen presented Her Majesty, according to an ancient custom, with

gold and silver cups containing rare perfumes; after which she advanced with her suite, followed by Djemil Pasha, Server Effendi (Mayor of Constantinople), Kiamil Bey, Réouf Pasha, Arifi Bey, A'ali Bey, Musafer Bey, Madjib Bey, and Rustem Bey, together with the French Ambassador, and was conducted by the Patriarch, Monsignor Hassoun, to the throne prepared for her at the right of the altar. The ceremony was worthy of the City of the Seven Hills itself; some twenty Archbishops and Bishops having come to do honour to the wife of the Eldest Son of the Church. These prelates were chiefly Armeno-Catholic dignitaries from different parts of the Turkish empire—Erzeroum, Trebizond, Broussa, Angora, Kharput, Mount Lebanon, &c.; besides whom there were two Greek-Catholic Bishops, a Bulgarian Catholic Archimandrite, and two Mektarist Archbishops (one from Venice, the other from Vienna.) The service was intoned in the Armenian chaunt, with flute or reed accompaniment, and presented some very striking effects, particularly when the Empress stepped from her throne to kiss the Gospel, presented to her by Monsignor Kaloupjian, Archbishop of Amasia. After mass was concluded, the Armenian Patriarch read an address from the

altar, and as the Empress arose from her seat, surrounded by her attendants and the twenty prelates, clad in every variety of gorgeous vestment, I, certainly, never beheld a grander or more solemn scene. The following is a translation of the address, which has a greater significance than may at first sight appear :—

"Madam,—In coming to pray in this church, your Majesty has deigned to give the Armeno-Catholic community a proof of your august and supreme good-will, the memory of which will always attach to this sanctuary, and be remembered amongst us. I join my humble voice to that of the prelates who surround this holy altar in imploring the Creator of all things to shed His most abundant blessings upon your Majesty, upon the Emperor, the faithful ally of our well-beloved sovereign the Sultan, and upon your glorious nation, whose hopes and affections are centred in your son. These prayers, Madam, we associate with those which come from the bottom of our hearts for the Sultan, our august sovereign, whose reign will be illustrious for the inauguration of those great principles of civilization which have assured the liberty of the Church, and the happiness of his people, without distinction of race or creed. It is, in fact, to these favours that we

owe the signal honour which has been conferred upon us by your Majesty, whose piety, graciousness, and generosity have decorated this humble church with so magnificent a gift as that which now adorns its walls." After the address was read, the Archbishops and Bishops descended from the altar. The Empress left her throne, and, prostrating herself before the Patriarch, received from him the Apostolic benediction. Her Majesty then left the church, and, as she passed close to me, I had an opportunity of well observing the pensive beauty of the face, and the inexpressible grace and elegance of the form which had won all hearts in the old city of Byzantium. So youthful, bright, and happy did she look, that I should certainly have assigned 1840 as the date of her birth, rather than that which is to be found in the Almanach de Gotha.

In the address read by the Armeno-Catholic Patriarch, allusion is made to a gift presented by the Empress. This gift, one of the many magnificent decorations that adorned the church, was a splendid specimen of Gobelin tapestry, after Raphael's Transfiguration, and said to be worth £10,000. I was not surprised at the fervour of Monsignor Hassoun's gratitude, for the gift was a right royal one, worthy indeed of the fair and

pious donor. From the church of St. Marie, the Empress drove to the French embassy in the Grand' Rue de Péra, where she received deputations from the Sisters of Charity, the ladies of Sion, the brothers of the Christian schools, and the clergy of the Latin churches. I was unable to be present, as, although I left the church of St. Marie almost immediately after Her Majesty, I found it impossible to make my way through the wall of human beings that literally barred the passage. I tried going round by the British embassy into the Petit Champ des Morts, and up a byway further down into the Grand' Rue, but with the same result; in fact, although I have seen dense crowds in London and Paris, I never before saw such a compact, impenetrable mass of humanity as I encountered on that Sunday. It was not that the crowd would not make way, for the people in Constantinople are always quiet, civil, and well-behaved; but they actually could not, so thickly were they packed together. The following, however, is a translation of the address presented to Her Majesty, and read by M. Bautony on behalf of the French colony :—

"Madame,—The arrival of your Majesty fills us with joy. Disinterested friend of Turkey, France could not better show the unalterable

attachment which she bears to this race, noble and chivalrous like itself, than in sending its gracious Sovereign to seal that friendship by her presence. The welcome that the entire population of Constantinople has given to your Majesty, the anxiety of all classes to approach and admire your august person, prove by their spontaneousness the moral effect which the presence of your Majesty has produced in the East. And this effect will be all the greater inasmuch as the impressions created in Constantinople, the heart of Turkey and of Islam, will spread from that vital centre to the extremities of the Empire.

"If, after the war in the Crimea, Turkey entered politically speaking, into the comity of European nations, your voyage to the East, Madame, and your sojourn in this capital of the Ottoman Empire, will certainly be causes of moral progress in this beautiful land—our second country — whose progress and happiness we ardently desire. France, of which your Majesty is the gracious personification, our 'Belle France,' returns to-day to Turkey, by its Sovereign, the visit the Sultan paid the year before last to our country. The civilized West allies itself more intimately to the reforming East. From the exchange of courteous visits between the

Sovereigns themselves, in face of their people, and in the midst of the populations assembled in the capital from the most distant provinces, will arise a new era of progress and solid liberty which the lights of civilization and the destruction of ignorance cannot fail to extend to every country.

"We salute with ardour, therefore, the advent of this new day, with which your Majesty's name will ever remain joined to that of France, whose civilizing mission will bear fruit in ages yet unborn. The French colony in Constantinople, whose respectful homage your Majesty condescends to receive, and of which I am the humble interpreter, will be for ever grateful for the interest that in all circumstances you have taken in them. I esteem myself happy in being on this day the organ of the general sentiment, and in being able to say in the name of all, Madame, you are welcome to the East. Vive l'Impératrice Eugénie!"

The Empress, I learned, was much affected at the address, and spoke in her usual winning manner to the principal members of the colony presented to her. Her Majesty then returned to Dolma-Baghtché, and crossed in the State caïque to Beglerbey, whence, after lunch, she rode on horseback, accompanied by Prince Murat and

suite, to Tchamlidja, one of the highest points on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, overlooking Scutari. In the evening, Her Majesty again dined with the Sultan at Dolma-Baghtché; but this time, besides those present on the previous Wednesday, the Sultan had invited all the foreign representatives and their wives. After dinner, the Sultan led the Empress into the grand drawing-room, where coffee was served, and it was very generally remarked that never had His Majesty appeared more affable and gratified. He chatted pleasantly with his guests, and bore himself towards his ministers, for the first time, as a European rather than an Eastern monarch.

The Empress returned to Beglerbey at ten p.m., and on Monday made an excursion with the Sultan to the Kiosk of Alem-Dagh. In the morning, Her Majesty received the wife of A'ali Pasha, the Grand Vizier, as also that of Djemil Pasha and Kiamil Pasha; the wife and daughters of Mustapha Fazyl Pasha, and the daughter of Halim Pasha. With the latter the Empress was particularly gracious, as the grand-daughter of the great Mehemet Ali, founder of the hereditary Vice-royalty of Egypt, speaks French perfectly, and was dressed *à la Franque*, in the best taste of Her Majesty's own milliner.

Before her departure, the Empress conferred the Cross of the Legion of Honour on nearly all the Turkish officials attached temporarily to her service. Our countryman, Hobart Pasha, received the rank of Commander, "in recognition of his personal attention to the French squadron during Her Majesty's visit." Besides valuable presents of diamond rings, pins, snuff-boxes, bracelets, &c., the Empress also gave one hundred and sixty thousand francs to the various charities of Constantinople, the Imaums of the mosques she visited, and the servants in waiting at the Palace of Beglerbey. Her Majesty declined to accept the valuable presents prepared for herself, with the exception of some pieces of cloth of gold and two superb carpets which the Sultan presented, saying in French, "C'est pour un boudoir." The Empress on her part presented to the Sultan two beautiful Sèvres vases, and to the Grand Vizier a magnificent tea service of old Sèvres porcelain.

On Tuesday, the 19th of October, all those brilliant fêtes came to an end. At 11 a.m. the Sultan went from Dolma-Baghtché to Beglerbey, and remained in conversation for some time with the Empress. His Majesty then, at about 12.30 p.m., conducted his fair guest on board

her yacht; the thunder of the cannon from the ships of war and batteries announced the Padishah's return to shore, and at one o'clock exactly the beautiful *Franza Imperatrizassy*—preceded by the iron-clads, together with the Forbin and Pertevi-Pialé—was borne on her *Aigle* past the Golden Horn, and was lost to sight beyond the heights of the Seraglio.

CHAPTER II.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

THE 17th of November, 1869, witnessed the historical apotheosis of M. de Lesseps. After half a lifetime of devotion to an idea, and faith in his own destiny to carry it out, he, on that day, received a triumph grander both in its significance and its attendant incidents than Roman conqueror ever enjoyed. The presence, at the opening of the Suez Canal, of two sovereigns; half-a-dozen royal princes; statesmen, ambassadors, *savants*, and other celebrities beyond count—besides thousands of less distinguished visitors from the Old and New Worlds, and representative squadrons from every Navy in Europe—sufficed to give an *éclat* to the occasion with which even a Frenchman's passion for "glory" might be well content. Nor was the honour unearned; for, be the mere commercial

result what it may, this union of the two seas will rank amongst the great works of the world, and to M. de Lesseps, more than any other living man, does the credit of it belong.

Nor is this lessened by the fact that the idea which was thus realised is as old as the Pharaohs. The honour is rather all the greater that what successive sovereigns, from Sesostris to the Caliphs, failed to effect, or accomplished only in part, has now been completely achieved. Centuries before the Christian era, both Hebrew and Phœnician ships traversed the Red Sea on their way to Ophir, and, during the dynasty of the Ptolemies and the Roman dominion, large fleets were sent out annually from Berenice and Myos-Hormes to India. After the establishment of the Mohammedan empire in the seventh century, an immense trade was carried on through the Red Sea with India and China; and, in the period between the twelfth and fifteenth centuries, the treasures of the East found their way over the coral-reefed *Yam-Sûph* to the Venetian factories in Alexandria. During the long historic span thus covered, many efforts had been made to pierce the Isthmus. Herodotus, Book ii., Chap. 158, relates that Nichos, son of Psammiticus (616-600 B.C.), was the first who

opened a communication by means of a canal between the Nile and the Red Sea. The canal was large enough to allow two trireme galleys to go abreast; the water being taken from the Nile, a little above the ancient Boubrastis—subsequently called Basta—a city situated on the Pelusian branch of the river.

The canal opened into the Red Sea near the Pithomus of Scripture—the Patumas of Herodotus, and the Hieropolis of the Ptolemies; the site of which, at the present day, is to be found at the northern extremity of the Bitter Lakes, not far from the actual shore of the Red Sea. It must be remembered, however, that two thousand five hundred years ago these lakes were only an extension of the Erythrean Sea, and that the Gulf of Suez was then called the Gulf of Hieropolis. The galleys were towed by men, and Herodotus gives four days as the time required for the passage. It appeared, nevertheless, that this route was not the best, and that the most direct course would have been to begin the canal on the shore of the Mediterranean, near Mount Cassius, which separated Egypt from Syria, and from which the Erythrean Sea was only distant a thousand *stadia*. According to Herodotus, this was the shortest route. In cutting his canal,

King Nichos caused the death of one hundred and twenty thousand men, but, having been told by an oracle that the canal would be the means of bringing the barbarians into Egypt, he discontinued the works, and gave up his project in despair.

According to Strabo, the canal of Nichos commenced at Phacusa, and passed to Belbeïs, where it met the one which washed the walls of Boubrastis. From Belbeïs (Pharbaetus), it entered the bitter lake below Hieropolis, and as this canal was a derivative of the Nile, the water of the bitter lake, in receiving that of the river, partook of the character of the sweet water of the Nile. A century after Nichos, Darius, son of Hydaspes, King of Persia (521-485 B.C.), caused the works to be recommenced; but, the engineers having assured him that the Red Sea was of a higher elevation than Egypt itself, he was so much afraid of altogether submerging the country he desired to improve, that the works were once more suspended. In fine, Ptolemy Philadelphus, King of Egypt (273 B.C.) finished the canal joining the two seas, and, in order to render the mouth of the canal in the Red Sea more safe, he made a dam (*hizei-orou*) which opened and shut at will. The dam served, at the same time, to

collect the waters of the Nile in the canal, and thus facilitated internal navigation. The canal of Ptolemy entered the Red Sea near Arsinoé—the present Suez—which afterwards took the name of Cleopatra.

After the battle of Actium (31 B.C.) Cleopatra, seeing that the forces of Egypt could not resist those of the Roman empire united against her, formed the singular project of taking her fleet through the canal into the Red Sea, and thus fly into some distant country. Some ships attempted the passage, but were burned by the Arabs, and Antony persuaded Cleopatra to abandon her design, and defend the entrance to her kingdom both by sea and land.

Under the Roman empire, Trajan renewed the canal of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and even added a branch which went some *stadia* below Memphis. This extension of the canal was called by the name of Trajan; Ptolemy called it Amina Trajanus; Quintius Curtius named it Oxius, and the Arabs *Merahemi*. Nothing further was done until the time of the Arabs, when in the year 637 of the Christian era, Amrou, the lieutenant of the Caliph Omar, succeeded in reopening the old channel as far as Bubrastis, on the Pelusian branch of the Nile. Volney, however, relates

that one hundred and thirty-four years later, the Caliph Abou-Djaffat-el-Mansour destroyed it in the hope of crushing his rebellious subjects by cutting off the means of transporting provisions, and thus starving them into subjection. From that time, no further effort was made, and the canal soon became blocked up by the then unconquerable sands. So it remained for a thousand years, until, in 1798, General Bonaparte, then commanding the troops of the French Republic in Egypt, proposed to cut a canal across the Isthmus capable of being navigated by sea-going ships, and the work which had been begun upwards of two thousand four hundred years before, would then have been recommenced but for the mistake of French engineers, who declared the Mediterranean to be considerably below the level of the Red Sea, and a canal to be therefore impossible.

From that time, the question continued to be agitated at intervals, but nothing definite was done till 1830, when Lieutenant Waghorn—then engaged in the establishment of his Overland Route—again surveyed the Isthmus, and found the level of the two seas to be identical. Still, though interest was for a time revived by the announcement of this fact, no further action was

taken with reference to the scheme till 1847, when England, France, and Austria sent out a commission to solve, once for all, the problem of the sea levels. This commission—on which Mr. Robert Stephenson represented our own Government—confirmed Waghorn's report, with the sole variance of finding a difference of five feet in the tide—not the real—levels of the two seas at the proposed termini of the canal. Another examination leading to similar results was made five years later, but Mr. Stephenson, nevertheless, pronounced against the feasibility of the canal, and his opinion—though at variance with that of M. Talabot, the French member of the commission—being accepted by the Government and public of England, the railway from Cairo to Suez, which he recommended instead, was the result.

In the meantime, another mind had been occupied with the scheme for nearly a quarter of a century. When Waghorn was advocating his own peculiar enterprise, young Ferdinand Lesseps was an *élève* in the French Consulate at Cairo, and, interested by our countryman's settlement of the sea levels, he conceived the idea of accomplishing the great work which, years before, Napoleon had abandoned. For four-and-twenty years of active

official life, the idea kept firm hold of his imagination, until being again in Egypt in 1854, he developed his plan to the then Viceroy, Saïd Pasha, and finally, two years later, obtained from him a concession to construct a ship-canal across the Isthmus from a point near Tyneh to Suez. Of the opposition that then began on the part of Lord Palmerston and the English press, it is needless to speak, for is it not all written in Blue Books and journals innumerable? This, however, rather stimulated than discouraged M. de Lesseps, while it also stirred up the national feeling in France, and, with its help, enabled him, in 1858, to launch his "Compagnie Universelle du Canal Maritime de Suez," with a capital of £8,000,000 sterling, on nearly every stock exchange in Europe. Few shares, however, were taken up out of France, but enough were placed there to warrant his commencing operations in the Spring of the following year, and, accordingly, on the 25th of April 1859, the "Président Fondateur" and his little band of followers took possession, in the Company's name, of the narrow belt of sand on the northern coast of the Isthmus, between Lake Menzaleh and the sea.

The subsequent ten years' history of the

scheme need not be traced. Enough to say that, by dint of perseverance and energy which may, without extravagance, be called heroic, M. de Lesseps overcame difficulties against which few living men could have successfully battled, and he now has his reward in witnessing the completion of an enterprise which will indissolubly link his name with Egyptian history.

CHAPTER III.

TURKISH WOMEN.

IT was to be expected that the visit of the Empress Eugénie to the Turkish capital would naturally cause a certain amount of attention to be directed to the social condition of Turkish women. The French journals, particularly, were in ecstasies over the results that would certainly ensue. According to them, the unveiled face of Her Majesty had effected a sumptuary *coup d'état*, resulting, even before she left, in the abandonment of the yashmak, the exchange of papooshes for Louis XIV. boots, and the substitution, for the feridjee and shalwar, of mantles and skirts of the latest Paris fashion. Nor was the revolution to end there; harem-life, with all its jealous restrictions, was to be at once abolished; eunuchs were to become in-pensioners of the museum, and their caged charges to enjoy

henceforth as much freedom as the *monde*—if not as the *demi-monde*—of France. All this, however, I need hardly say, existed only in the imagination of the writers for the Paris press. Whatever may have been the effect of the Empress's unveiled beauty on the Turkish women who saw her, certain it is that the yashmak, feridjee, and shalwar still hold their ground. Feminine coquetry, it is true, has long ago displaced the old opaque swathing that hid everything but the eyes, for the diaphanous gossamer through which the whole battery of the wearer's charms now plays as freely as if no single fold of muslin remained. The bright eyes flash and the pearly teeth dazzle beneath the veil which, from the fineness of its texture, no longer serves to conceal, but rather add an additional charm to the natural beauties of the wearer. The yellow papoosh, too, has largely yielded to the elastic European boot; but the Louis Quatorze abomination, and its "graceful Grecian bend" are as yet, thank Heaven, foreign to the precincts of Stamboul.

The exaggerated nonsense of the Paris journals was, however, quite consistent with the still prevalent notion in Western Europe as to the status and treatment of women in Turkey. Ac-

cording to this, every Turk is more or less a Bluebeard, with four wives at least, and as many concubines to boot as he can afford—the whole of whom are the mere slaves of his caprice, jailered by eunuchs, and without domestic authority of any kind. Nothing could well be further from the reality. Instead of this paradisaic plurality being the rule, polygamy, in fact, is fast going out. Of the present generation of Mussulmans, few have more than two wives, while the great majority have only one. Thus the late Grand Vizier, and most of his colleagues in the ministry, were monogamic, as are, I believe, without exception, the whole of the superior officers of the navy. Odalisques, again, are the "luxury" of the very rich, and a very rare luxury too; for in Turkey, as here in the West, wives are jealous of their rights, and—whatever may have been the laxer rule in the good old times—they now-a-days set their faces stoutly and successfully against illegitimate rivals. The Khanum is, in reality, as much mistress *chez elle* as any Western wife of the day, and has, if anything, rather more than her fair share of authority in-doors. Instead, therefore, of the harem being a prison guarded with bolts and bars, it is rather a sanctuary from

which care and trouble are, as far as humanly possible, excluded.

The man is always the bread-winner; he alone bears the attendant anxieties of life, while the woman passes her days, if not in Arcadian innocence and calm, at least free from the frivolous and not always innocent excitements which make up much of the existence of her sisters in the West. Nowhere in Europe is that "pearl without price," the purity of woman, to be found in greater perfection than in the households of the Osmanlis, and although the Turks are, unfortunately, not free from evils, many introduced from this side of the Alps, there is one evil—the social evil—which has no home among them.

Even the laws of the Empire have been framed so as to give protection to women. No matter what political change may affect the husband, the property of the wife is always secure; under every circumstance it remains her own, nor is it liable for her husband's debts any more than the property of a married woman in England when secured by settlement. This, too, applies to all her property—not only that which she possessed before marriage, but also that which she may have acquired subsequently; while, if her husband purchase lands and houses

in her name, they belong to her absolutely, and no claim of any kind against him can reach them. The slight disabilities under which Turkish women do labour—the comparative privacy of their lives, and partial concealment of their face and figure from public gaze—are only relics of a rude and barbarous age, useful as a means of protecting them from injury and insult. Besides, the yashmak is not a religious institution. The women in the villages cover their faces only in presence of strangers, while those of the nomad tribes do not cover at all. The women of the Turkoman tribes, as well as those of the Kurds and Arabs, go unveiled, and in Bosnia, although the married women wear the yashmak, the young girls have their faces exposed and appear well pleased when they are admired. If a Mussulman lady of Constantinople were to-day questioned upon the subject, and asked whether she would prefer to appear in society with or without the yashmak, she would probably say :— "Yes ! I should certainly prefer that every one could see and admire me, but I would not wish that my husband should have the opportunity of seeing other women handsomer than I am."

Turkish women will safely bear comparison in

beauty with the women of any other country in the world. Education is their one great want, but in favour of that, too, the tide of fashion is fast setting in among the higher classes, while its extension amongst all ranks throughout the empire is amply provided for in the new law on public instruction. This latter fact may be of little immediate practical value, but it at least implies recognition of the want, and a disposition on the part of the Government to meet it. That only it is which will both individually and socially elevate the sex in Turkey, and not, assuredly, either the aping of Western fashions or the adoption of Western morals. As it is, till this true "revolution" is effected, I prefer the yashmak and feridjee, with their accompanying simplicity of life and manners, to the *costumes décolletés* and ethical laxity of the salons either of Paris or London. The day would be an evil one for the Turk when his harems exchanged the one for the other.

It is a popular belief in this country that Mohammed excluded women from paradise, but it is only necessary to read the Koran, Chaps. III., IV., XIII., XIV., XL., XLVIII., to learn, on the contrary, that the evil deeds of women will be punished, and their good works rewarded,

God making no distinction on this point between the sexes. It is no doubt related that, when an old woman asked the Prophet if she would be admitted into paradise, he replied, "No;" but then he added, "not in the state in which you now are, for God will restore to you at the gate both your youth and your beauty."*

Another popular belief is that polygamy is a bar to all human progress. Yet it is a fact that Islamism marched for ten centuries at the head of humanity. Polygamy did not prevent Greece from creating her masterpieces of art, nor was it to monogamy, but to the study of Greek letters, that we owe our own literary *renaissance;* while as to the exact sciences, and that which is so proudly called liberty of thought, we owe them to Islamism. The Turks are, it is true, polygamists; but they are not alone. Five hundred millions of men, out of seven hundred and fifty millions inhabiting the terrestrial globe, are polygamists. Christians are now monogamic, although they were not always so; for the earlier kings of France, good Christians as they were, had several wives. Gontran, Childebert, and Dagobert I. had, each, three wives, while Clodomir, uncle of Dagobert, had four.

* "Soirées de Constantinople," par Ch. Mismer.

We are all, more or less, creatures of circumstances and habit; apt to consider our own institutions superior to those of others. Before, however, condemning the practice of polygamy, it is but just to ascertain if it possess anything of good, and whether the system of monogamy is so immeasurably superior. Statistics enable us to appreciate some of the results of monogamy:—prostitution, infanticide, abortion, clandestine polygamy, and adultery. As to polygamy, it is right to mention that when Mohammed appeared, the Arabs could legally possess two hundred wives, whereas he reduced the number to four. To be a polygamist, besides, requires, according to the Koran, not only the desire, but the means, as the rules imposed are quite sufficient to prevent its abuse. And as to the woman, she cannot be forced to marry contrary to her own wish; while the entry into marriage procures considerable advantages, finding, as she always does, a natural protector in her husband, and her own happiness in his contentment. The prohibition against wine and gambling is, moreover, a true safeguard for the wife against the brutalities of the husband. Drunkenness and gambling are the destruction of domestic peace, and, in cursing them, Islamism procures for the wife those

positive guarantees which are in reality much more efficacious than the platonic recommendations of Christian preachers.

The stipulation of a marriage gift by the husband is, besides, an essential condition to the legitimacy of marriage; and, as this gift or dower is bestowed upon the wife and placed under her control, it becomes a security against injustice on the part of the husband. Conjugal life is regulated by these words of the Koran—(Chaps. II., V.) "Wives should be obedient to their husbands and perform the duties devolving upon them, and husbands should treat their wives with justice, but they have authority over them." The Koran also says that man is superior to the woman, but the Turk is nevertheless kind and affectionate towards his wife. His kindness is grave and protecting, as that of a superior to a feeble being who is necessary for his happiness. He regards her as the greatest blessing bestowed by God, and prefers her to every other possession. Instead of demanding a dowry with her, he gives her one. He makes presents to the relations of his wife, instead of receiving them. He takes the management of external matters, while the wife presides over the home, and the duties of both are laid down by nature herself.

I wish some learned theologian would tell me why it is that men are so much better, in all the social relations of life, under Mohammedan laws than under those of Christianity. It is unheard of for a Turk to strike a woman. He is always tender towards women, children, and dumb animals; and if a dog howl with pain in the streets of Péra, you may be quite certain it is not a Turk that has struck the blow. A Turk is truthful and scorns a lie; he is sober, temperate, and never a drunkard or a gambler; he is honourable in his dealings, kind to his neighbour, and charitable to the poor. In Turkey no man, woman, or child can really want bread, much less die of starvation. Can as much be said for Christian countries?

It is generally supposed in Western Europe, that the harem is a prison in which the Mussulman wife is closely immured. But the word *harem* means simply that part of the house allotted to the women, as the word *selamlik* signifies that part allotted to the men. Entry into the harem is interdicted to strangers because it is the sanctuary of conjugal love, but reclusion does not in any way exist, and there are no women more free in their going out and coming in than the Mussulman women. The

harem, however, has not always been inviolable, for Ibrahim, Grand Vizier of Selim, was permitted free entrance into the harem of his master, and conversed at his will with the mother and wives of the Sultan. The women of the Almoravides, too, walked with their faces uncovered, until Mohammed-ben-Abdallah, disciple of the celebrated Al-Gazzali, re-established the discipline of the Koran after he had been placed at the head of the Almohades. Amongst the Turks, women enjoyed considerable liberty up to the reign of Solyman the Magnificent, when several restrictions were imposed in order to assure their inviolability and protect them from the licentiousness of men.

At the present day, however, women in Turkey enjoy as much, if not more, liberty than their sisters of the West. The Christian woman has, undoubtedly, more liberty to do evil. She has the liberty of showing herself nearly half-naked at balls, and representing *tableaux vivants* at theatres. She has the liberty of making a trade of love; for, with us, love has its permanent army and its extraordinary budget like war. Turkish civilization has not advanced as far as that, while, on the other hand, Mussulman women have quite as much liberty to do good; and although they

may have some desires unfulfilled, they nevertheless, have little reason to envy their Christian sisters. Our law sacrifices the woman to the man. With us, a married woman remains always a minor. She has neither the power of managing her own property, nor the right to dispose of it. An unnatural husband can sell everything, even to the furniture, without being obliged to leave his wife as much as a table or a chair, which she may, perhaps, have paid for with the produce of her own labour. She cannot appear in a court of justice without the consent of her husband; she has not the right of directing the education of her children or opposing their marriage, and she cannot act as guardian to an orphan other than her own son or grandson. Paternity being ignored, the woman alone has the burden of natural children, and the shame of faults committed through passion. In fine, a woman without fortune is a pariah condemned by law and Christian manners to all the consequences of isolation and misery. Islamism, on the contrary, is full of solicitude for woman. Legal polygamy apart, she is not subject to the various inconveniences suffered by her sex in other lands. Thanks to the principle of absolute equality which obtains amongst the Turks, the humblest

slave can marry the highest personage; and every woman that bears a child to a man has the right to claim the benefits of paternity for her offspring. Besides, polygamy is not obligatory; and if the advantages of monogamy are sufficiently apparent to a Mussulman, he is perfectly free to have only one wife—a custom which is now frequent and likely to become still more general.

It is frequently asserted that Christianity considerably elevated the condition of woman, and that, outside of Christianity, woman is but an instrument of procreation and pleasure, without any social influence whatever. Such, however, is not altogether the case. It was civilization that improved the condition of woman, for in the earlier days of Christianity she was little better than a slave. What are our modern ideas of Lucretia? The middle ages, the grand age of Louis XIV. and Charles II., without mentioning our own times, show how rare are the cases in which women have sought death as a refuge against dishonour. The crown of a Tarquin always covers with impunity the brutalities of a Sextus!

The condition of women was not ameliorated until after the contact of Christians with Mussul-

mans had given birth to chivalry. Chivalry had its root in Spain, whence Charlemagne transplanted it to the centre of Europe. The tournaments and jousts, the troubadours and knights-errant, Castilian pride, courtesy towards ladies, serenades, single combats, generosity towards the vanquished, faith in plighted word, respect for hospitality,—all were borrowed from the Mussulmans of Spain. Even in the present day, there is a great similarity between the Spanish character and that of the Arabs, who still possess the noble qualities which distinguished the warriors of Granada. And so great is the Arab's respect for woman, that the most irreconcilable enemy finds safety and protection under their tents from the moment he succeeds in touching the robe of one of their wives. From time immemorial, too, the women of the idolatrous Arabs had full control over their property, could dispose freely of their hand, and give themselves up to the bent of their natural genius.

It is not on Mohammed rests the responsibility of the passive *rôle* imposed upon Turkish women; for he employed women as powerful auxiliaries in the propogation of his great work. The names of Ayesha, Fatima, and Khadidja are closely connected with Islamism. Fatima,

daughter of Mohammed, and wife of Ali, gave her name to the dynasty of the Fatimites; while no greater homage could be rendered to woman than that paid by Mohammed when he said: "Paradise is at the feet of the mothers." Nowhere, in fact, outside of Islamism, are mothers treated with more respect. Nowhere is their influence greater upon the destinies of the family or the future of the children; and so true is this that it would be impossible to write the history of the Sultans of Turkey without, at the same time, writing those of the Sultanas Validés. In every Mussulman household, the great object of respect and devotion is the mother. There is no loss which a Turk can suffer equal to the loss of his mother. If his wife die, he says, "I can get another." If his child is cut off, he says, "Others may be born to me, but I can be born only once, and have but one mother."

It is well known what powerful influence Zoraya, mother of Abou-Abdallah, called Boabdil, exercised over the mind of her husband Muley-Hassan of Granada. Saffyé, daughter of a noble Venetian house, the Baffos, reigned in Turkey at the same time as Catherine de' Medici in France and Elizabeth in England. She ruled during the two reigns of Amurath III. and Mohammed III.,

as Roxolana had ruled during those of Solyman II. and his son Bajazet. Catherine de' Medici entered into direct correspondence with Saffyé, wife of Amurath, in order to obtain the assistance of the Ottoman fleet against Philip II. The Sultana Koesem, mother of Ibrahim, lived during seven reigns, and governed during three; while her profound political sagacity obtained for her the name of Empress of the Ottomans and mother of the soldiers. "Les mœurs et les lois religieuses," says a great French writer, "reléguent en vain les femmes dans la servitude et dans le mystère; la nature, la beauté, et l'amour leur rendent la place que la nature leur a faite dans le cœur de l'homme."

I have already said that the Mussulman laws are very favourable to woman. For example, she is of age at nine years, and, when married, can manage her own property, and dispose of a third of her fortune. She can abandon the conjugal domicile for a just cause. If the husband have not sufficient means, the wife is bound to prepare the food and perform the duties of the household for herself and family; but not for guests, or with the object of profit. The wife cannot be compelled to labour for the support of her husband; on the contrary, the husband

is bound to provide for the wants of his wife. It is prohibited for the husband to insult or ill-treat his wife. In certain disputes, the husband is not believed unless he produce collateral testimony; failing in which, the oath of the wife is as good as his. Should the husband not provide means of existence for his wife, she is authorised to borrow in his name; her right even going so far as the sale of articles specially belonging to him.

Although a wife cannot actually take the initiative for a divorce, she has many ways, if she desire, of rendering it inevitable; and amongst certain Arab tribes it is sufficient that the woman declares her intention to re-marry with another man who shall be better than her actual husband. It requires four witnesses to convict a woman of adultery; but as the honour of woman constitutes the principal element of Mussulman society, that honour is naturally guarded by the severest penalties of the law as well as of public opinion. The punishment for adultery is death. While this doom, however, is recorded against infidelity, it stands rather as the expression of public abhorrence than as a law which is to be carried into execution. The annals of the Ottoman Empire record but a single instance of punishment for

adultery inflicted by an indignant multitude or rabble who gathered stones at the wayside to cast at the adulteress.

If a woman amongst the Druses, however, be guilty of conjugal infidelity (an occurrence which is extremely uncommon), she always pays the penalty with her life. The husband sends his wife back to her father's house, and, with her, the khanjar or dagger which he had received on his marriage, but without the sheath.* This notifies her dishonour, which attaches, not to the husband, but to the wife's relations, and can only be washed out with her blood. The father and brothers sit

* The Druse women are generally very beautiful, and remarkable for fairness of complexion, dark blue eyes, long raven tresses, and teeth of pearly whiteness. The men generally marry at from sixteen to eighteen years of age, and take but one wife. The bride is usually from thirteen to fourteen years old. Three days before the wedding, the bridegroom, with some of his male friends, goes to the house of his betrothed, and demands her in formal manner from the hands of her father, who, in an equally formal manner, gives his consent. The dowry which the husband is to settle on his wife is then agreed upon. The bride, closely veiled, is led forth by her mother, who vouches for the purity and honour of her daughter; and then the bride presents her future husband with a khanjar, or dagger, which denotes the protection she expects to receive from him, and is, at the same time, significant of punishment, should the declaration of her mother be false, or should she subsequently be unfaithful to her marriage vow.

in solemn judgment on the wife at her husband's house, and if the evidence be sufficient, her doom is pronounced. A father's love is of no avail, a mother's shrieks cannot stay the hand that strikes, nor a sister's tears mitigate the punishment. The executioner, generally the eldest brother, severs the wife's head from her body; and the tantoor, with a lock of her hair steeped in blood, sent to the husband, testifies that punishment has been inflicted.*

Adultery is exceedingly rare, and there is no Divorce Court in Turkey. There is, however, a legal marriage, not very frequent it is true, in Turkey, which if introduced into this country might in time render the labours of Lord Penzance exceedingly light, and put an end altogether to the scandals of his Lordship's court, which are so disgraceful to Christianity and civilization. This marriage is called *kabin*. It consists in the man presenting himself before the cadi or magistrate, and binding himself to maintain till a certain time the woman whom he designates, and whose consent he has obtained. Her consent must be attested by her father or nearest relation, and two witnesses. The man further binds himself to take

* The tantoor is a silver ornament worn on the head by married women.

care of the children that she shall bear, and to give up to her, besides, at the expiration of the term agreed upon, a sum of money or effects and property stipulated and expressed. The children who are the issue of these marriages enjoy the same rights as others, and remain at the charge of the father. It would appear, however, that the idea of the bond of marriage being indissoluble is more difficult to bear than the bond itself, for it is said the parties generally make use of their liberty, at the expiration of the time fixed, to renew their engagement; the consciousness of its being merely temporary, and not for life, having no doubt much influence on their willingness to do so. It might be curious to inquire into the principles in human nature that underlie this institution. They seem to resolve themselves into that rooted and universal antipathy to constraint which is an essential element of our nature, especially when what is sought to be fettered consists of the involuntary and uncontrollable affections of the heart.

It is generally supposed that the Turks are bigoted, but there is no city in the world where religious liberty exists to a greater extent than in the capital of the Ottoman Empire. Even

marriages with Christian women have not been uncommon, the latest instance I am aware of being the marriage of Haidar Effendi, recently ambassador at Vienna from the Sublime Porte, who, on his return last year to the Bosphorus, brought with him a Christian wife from the court of the Kaiser. In the present state of manners, there are, no doubt, many prejudices to be overcome, but there is no legal prohibition against mixed marriages. The only formality required by law is that the woman must be invited to embrace Islamism; but as soon as she declares, three times, her desire to remain faithful to her own religion, no further interference is possible. In principle, the Mussulman law offers no obstacle to the amelioration of women or to the progress of society. Nature, in the East, has endowed women with an extremely rapid perfectibility, and I expect great results will follow from the moment when education shall have finally eradicated from the harems all traces of ignorance and superstition. Even as it is, I believe there is much that the Christian woman might envy in the social condition of her Mussulman sister.

CHAPTER IV.

TURKISH ARMAMENTS.

IT has been so common in this country, to hear the Turkish ironclad fleet spoken of as a mere financial blunder, that it is not easy to realise, all at once, how important a part it has played in the political history of the past year. No doubt many of Lord Granville's hearers were surprised, and many incredulously shook their heads, when from his place in the House he stated that the Turkish Navy was now one of the strongest in the world; and yet the remark was incontestably true. Whether the sagacious statesman, the late A'ali Pasha, who so long filled the post of Grand Vizier foresaw events which have lately come to pass, or whether, if there had been no armoured fleet, Russia would have recently moved in the Black Sea question, it is now useless to speculate. But one thing

is certain; the possession of a powerful navy enabled Turkey, in a most perplexing juncture, to assume an attitude of calm self-reliance, which not only left her allies free to pursue their own line of policy, but likewise mainly contributed to the pacific adjustment of a difficulty—otherwise fraught with peril—without any sacrifice of dignity on the part of the Sultan's Government.

Gratifying, however, as this result may be to the Porte, and calculated as it is to inspire confidence in those who have lent money to Turkey, it must be regarded, not as crowning the edifice of Ottoman maritime power, but only as a foundation, the successful laying of which augurs well for the stability of the structure to be superimposed on it as time goes on. There are now in the Ottoman Navy, one hundred and eighty-five vessels carrying two thousand three hundred and seventy guns, including four line-of-battle ships, five first-class mailed frigates, twelve corvettes, and five gun-boats of modern construction; no inconsiderable force as it stands, but which may yet be judiciously and largely increased. There is no reason, therefore, why Turkey—possessing, as she does, first-class vessels, fine men, a well-instructed rising generation of officers, and an arsenal second to none, should not continue to

hold the leading position which she has attained among the naval powers of Europe.

The stirring events which have recently taken place in Western Europe have given a considerable impetus to every department engaged in the manufacture of war material. Turkey is more than ever convinced that she must rely upon her own unaided efforts to preserve her position amongst the nations of Europe; and this feeling is manifesting itself in the activity shown by the Grand Master of Artillery, not only in the rapid accumulation of increased stores of arms, but in the permanent enlargement of the buildings connected therewith; the acquisition of the newest and most powerful machinery, and the improvement and simplification of several branches of manufacture. In fact, Tophaneh is fast becoming the Woolwich of the Bosphorus. Since September, 1870, great changes have taken place in the buildings themselves. A long shop facing the Bosphorus has been built for the purpose of giving room for the entire separation of machinery worked by hand from that driven by steam, and several other shops have been enlarged in order to give accommodation to an increased number of machines and men.

The most notable improvement in this direc-

tion, however, is the construction of a new shop for the reception of machinery suitable to the manufacture of guns up to thirteen and fourteen inches in diameter. This vast erection, which will occupy the centre of the Imperial Gun Factories at Tophaneh, will be the largest workshop in the world, and will be eight hundred and fifty feet long — about half the length of the Crystal Palace at Sydenham — eighty-two feet wide, and nearly forty feet high. This noble building is fast approaching completion; the glazed roof is nearly finished, and the foundations for the heavy machinery, which it is intended to contain, are being laid, as rapidly as is consistent with solidity, upon the solid rock, which, in some places, is conveniently found at a few inches below the surface. Several of the gigantic lathes and boring machines are already in position, and the rest are either waiting to be put up, or are on their way from this country. One boring lathe which recently reached Tophaneh, is forty-five feet long, and will turn a coil of eighty inches in diameter. These ponderous machines will be worked by three engines, of an aggregate horse-power of nearly two hundred, which are now being erected. The carriage department has also been enlarged; a change rendered necessary by

the entire abandonment of wooden gun-carriages and limbers, which are now manufactured entirely of wrought iron,—a stronger, lighter, and more durable material for the purpose.

Antiquarian readers may, perhaps, sigh over the news that the old Genoese, Venetian, Persian, and Russian guns which were clustered round the clock-tower at Tophaneh, are fast being melted up and converted into modern weapons. Some of these were really specimens of art, and their loss is to be regretted; but economy is the order of the day, and these *bouches inutiles* have been condemned to the melting furnace.

The most noteworthy improvement, however, is one introduced by Halil Pasha into the system of manufacturing muzzle-loading guns on the Woolwich principle. These guns are made up of a central steel tube, strengthened at the breech-end by one or more welded coils of wrought iron. Halil Pasha's improvement consists in substituting for the wrought-iron coils a jacket of cast bronze of similar shape and size. The advantages claimed for the new system are obvious. The operations through which the bronze jacket passes are much fewer than those gone through in making the wrought-

iron coils, and the work can be entrusted to artisans possessing a smaller amount of skill; while the chances of obtaining a casting free from defects are greater than in the case of the wrought-iron coils. As yet, no guns larger than 68-pounders have been manufactured upon the new principle; but all of them, from the small 9-pounder mountain gun upwards, have fully withstood the tests applied to them during recent trials at Tophaneh and Choban Tchesmé. These experiments have been so successful that it has been determined to apply the system to guns of larger calibre, and preparations are now being made for the manufacture of a batch of large fortress and siege guns upon the new model. During recent trials, the practice made by artillerymen at Choban Tchesmé was exceedingly good, the flag-staff, forming the *point de mire*, having been carried away by one of the shots fired from a 40-pounder at 4,000 yards.

There is a cartridge manufactory at Kirk-Aghatch, where over a hundred machines, for making the metal work of the cartridges, have been erected in the new workshops facing the water at Tophaneh. The conversion of arms on the Snider system is being rapidly carried out; so much so that in a few months the stock

of muzzle-loaders in store will be quite exhausted. The Snider is an excellent arm in every way, and is particularly suited to excitable soldiers like the Turks, who somewhat resemble the French in being liable to throw away their ammunition without taking deliberate aim when using a quick-firing piece. The late war has proved that quick-firing rifles like the Martini-Henry, are much more fitted for being placed in the hands of cool calculating Teutons than in those of hot-blooded Southerns. Great improvements have also been made in the copper-smelting process as carried on at Tokat. A batch of five tons of unrefined copper was lately received at Swansea, to be refined by the best methods, in order to compare the results obtained with those of Zeitoun-Bournou. The specimens were submitted to several well-known copper-smelters at Swansea and elsewhere, who gave it as their opinion that the unrefined metal was of such excellent quality and colour that, if introduced into the English market, it would fetch from £1 to £1 10*s.* per ton above the prices then ruling.

It was recently reported that the Turkish Government had ordered a large supply of powder from a Prussian manufacturer. This statement,

however, was quite incorrect, and arose no doubt from the fact that the director of the Barout-haneh works had obtained a few pounds of Prussian prismatic powder, as a specimen for comparison with that manufactured in Turkey. The mills at Barout-haneh works—which by the way are large enough to supply double the amount of powder necessary for home use—are actively engaged in making "pebble," "bean," and prismatic powder on a large scale. The first two kinds are sufficiently described by the epithets given to them; not so, however, the prismatic powder, which consists of hexagonal prismatic blocks one inch and a-half in diameter and one inch and three-quarters in height, and are pierced with nine cylindrical holes one eighth-of-an-inch in diameter. The object of making powder in this shape is that it may burn more slowly when exploded in the gun. A small-grained powder would speedily destroy a large gun, the explosion being too sudden and violent. The larger the gun, therefore, the larger should be the grains of powder; the prismatic powder being consequently used for guns of the largest calibre. Another description of powder is also being made for guns of an intermediate size, in the form of flat blocks half an inch long, quarter of an

inch broad, and three-sixteenths of an inch thick.

The torpedo department of Zeitoun-Bournou —attached to Tophaneh, under the direction of the Grand Master of the Artillery—is also making rapid progress; but the proceedings are being accomplished so quietly by the able American officer who has organised the works, that little is known on the subject to the outside public. The extent and power of these defences of the sea-approaches to Constantinople, when they come to be fully known, will probably cause some surprise. The factories at Zeitoun-Bournou have completed a large number of massive hemispherical iron tanks, each of which will contain from six thousand to seven thousand pounds of powder, and it is intended to build two hundred of these tanks and sink them in suitable parts of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, at the Black Sea mouth, and in the Bosphorus. They are doubly-riveted, and made stronger than the strongest steam-boilers, as they will, when sunk, have to support a pressure of about seventy pounds to the square inch. These tanks, are, in short, submarine mines, containing the most terribly destructive charges of powder, lying on the bed of the sea, and explosible at will, from

the shore, by electricity. They will be fitted with an apparatus, very durable, but at the same time most delicate and unerring, which indicates at once, to the operator at the electric battery on land, the passage of any ship over the spots at which they are sunk. The explosion of one of them in the deep waters of the Bosphorus would utterly annihilate, within a radius of about two hundred yards, the largest iron-clad ever built.

These submarine mines are destined, of course, only for defensive purposes; but they will be also supplemented by a system of torpedo-rams for offensive attacks. The variety of these latter engines, adopted by the Tophaneh administration, are a marked improvement upon those which were used with great effect during the American civil war against the Federal fleet. Within a week or so, two vessels will be destroyed as an experiment at Buyuk-Limau, near the Black Sea entrance of the Bosphorus; one by the explosion of a submarine tank, and the other by a ram-torpedo attached to a steam-launch. The American war was the first occasion in modern warfare on which torpedoes were used as military engines on a really scientific and comprehensive scale; and, during the course of that struggle, the Confederates succeeded in destroying, by

their agency, a more powerful fleet than the Northern Navy possessed at the beginning of it, namely, eleven iron-clads and twenty-four wooden ships of different sizes. Turkish waters are peculiarly adapted for this system; and, in view of any possible "eventualities," it must be a source of satisfaction to the Sultan and his Government to feel that, with the arrangements now in progress at Zeitoun-Bournou, Turkey will soon be in possession of the most extensive and complete system of torpedo defences now in existence.

The same spirit of activity prevailing at the Government establishments of Tophaneh and its dependencies, is equally manifest in the rapid progress which has been made during the last nine months at the Naval Arsenal, at Haskeui. The Minister of Marine, like the Grand Master of Ordnance, is evidently animated with the strongest desire to see Turkey render herself every day more and more independent of other nations for the supply of the means of offence or defence. A notable instance of the carrying out of this wish occurs in the new armour-plated vessel which has been on the stocks at Haskeui for the last fifteen months, and is now fast approaching completion. The *Mukat-demi-*

heigher, as the new iron-clad will be called, is the sister-ship to the *Fati Bulend*, which was constructed by the Thames Iron Works last year for the Turkish Government. She is the first iron-clad laid down in Turkey, and is being built from drawings and specifications by Mr. Reed (late chief constructor to the British Navy.) Her general dimensions are :—

	Feet.	inch.
Length between perpendiculars . . .	235	0
Breadth at waterline	38	0
Breadth at battery	42	0
Tonnage, building measurement 1601		
Draft of water, mean (deep)	17	3
Engines nominal 500 h. p.		

The *Mukat-demi-heigher* will be armed with twelve and a half ton Armstrong guns, inclosed in a central box or battery, that, as the dimensions show, projects two feet on each side —something like a bow-window to a house which commands up and down a street as well as directly in front. This arrangement has enabled Mr. Reed to realise his favourite theory of "all round fire" with ample accommodation for working ropes, &c., which he maintains has never been satisfactorily realised in a turret vessel; though, perhaps, the nearest approach was the ill-fated *Captain*, designed by his late rival, Captain

Coles. The thickness of the armour plates on the central box of the ship now being built will be nine inches and six inches; supported by a backing of teak, nine inches and twelve inches; behind which is worked a "double skin," and a framing of very strong scantling. The armour belt beyond the "box" extends to a depth of four feet below and two feet above the water line, and will be an average thickness of five inches. The decks at the ends of the ship and over the battery are entirely covered with iron plates; and a complete water-tight inner bottom is worked for nearly the whole length of the ship. Besides which she has the great advantage of drawing no more than about seventeen feet of water—some six or eight feet less than the frigates of the English navy. It has only been during this year that our Admiralty has begun to be alive to the important part which such vessels are destined to play in the future, and has promised to provide a powerful fighting ship with a comparatively light draught of water. Prussia has already moved in the same direction, and has, I believe, given an order for two vessels similar to the *Mukat-demi-heigher* to an eminent London ship-builder, who, as far back as 1866, built for that government a turret vessel with a draught of only thirteen feet.

The other parts of the establishment at Haskeui are in a similar state of activity, and a large amount of work has been got through during the past year. In addition to the pair of engines for the *Mukat-demi-heigher*, which are of five hundred horse-power, nominal, two other pair of sixty horse-power, nominal, are being made for two gunboats now in course of construction. Two twenty-five horse-power stationary engines have also been made, and are now being erected in the factories; and four pair of floating fire engines are nearly finished. The whole of the boilers throughout the works have been entirely renewed and all the modern improvements introduced. A new smith's shop, to contain fifty fires, is also being built; and drawings are being got out for the erection of several large factories and foundries, to replace those of Yali-Kiosk, the site of which has been given up to the Roumelian Railway Company for their Stamboul terminus. When these are finished, Haskeui will be able to execute work of the largest kind, and keep in repair, not only the Turkish Navy, but also those of her allies in case of necessity.

New engines and boilers have been placed in the paddle-wheel frigates, *Taïf* and *Sharki-*

Shadia, but the largest amount of work done has been necessitated by the defective construction of the two iron-clad monitors which were bought in France during the Cretan insurrection. The whole of the armour plating of these two vessels has had to be removed and refitted, there having been, in many places, gaps between the joints of an inch and a half in width. The method of fastening the iron plates on to the backing, too, was defective; the plates being simply screwed into the wood instead of being fastened by means of bolts and nuts passing completely through it. The sea-cocks throughout both vessels have been removed, as they were constructed on a long abandoned and dangerous principle. One of these vessels, which in addition has been fitted with a telescopic chimney, is now finished and anchored off the palace of Dolma-Baghtché, where she will be joined by her sister ship in the course of a month or six weeks.

Of less important work I may mention the light ships for the Black Sea, a pair of gates for a large dock, and a number of small engines for steam launches belonging to the iron-clads. The railway, too, upwards of a mile long, communicating with the different shops, has just

been completed with the old English Crimean rails that were received from Balaclava at the close of the war; the whole of the turn tables having been made at the arsenal. A large factory is also being erected to contain the new rope-making machinery, lately constructed by Messrs. Fairburn and Kennedy, which possesses many improvements that effectually do away with the necessity for the long rope walks of former days. Of future work, I may mention that a set of drawings is being got out for the engines of an iron-clad of greater size and power than any of those already in possession of the Government. These engines will be of about eight thousand effectual horse-power, but the vessel for which they are intended will be constructed in this country.

The Turkish fleet, in fact, has never been in a better state of repair; and, when the efficiency of the crew and officers becomes on a par with the condition of the ships, the Minister of Marine may be congratulated upon having under his authority, a navy fully fit to cope with any it is likely to encounter.

CHAPTER V.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

IT has often been asserted that Islamism is adverse to enlightenment, and obstructive to the spread of education among its followers. Such, however, is far from being the fact. On the contrary, in no country is instruction more esteemed, or its professors more respected. The position of Khodga (teacher) is always one of honour, and a pupil, no matter to what rank he may rise in the State, always evinces towards his former master a degree of affection, bordering on reverence, which is seldom seen in other countries.

There are in Turkey three classes of Mussulman public schools: the primary district schools; the Rushdiyés, or schools of a superior order; and the Médressés, or schools of the mosques. Every mahallé, or district, possesses a small

rudimentary school, founded generally by private bequest, in which children of tender age are taught the Turkish alphabet and the reading of the Koran in Arabic. The pupils remain in these schools, which are mostly conducted by the neighbouring Imaums, for five or six years, their parents or guardians paying a small annual sum; but indigent children are admitted gratuitously. Leaving these district schools at ten or twelve years of age, the children are then admitted as out-door pupils to the Rushdiyés, which are schools of a somewhat higher class, and are gratuitous. There, they learn reading, and also writing in Turkish, such as the *sulus*, or ordinary hand, and the *rica*, or current commercial writing, together with the first principles of arithmetic, geography, and Turkish history.

As a general rule, there is one of these Rushdiyé schools to every province, and the pupils attend them for four or five years. Above the Rushdiyés, are the Médressés or Mosque schools, where instruction is given in Turkish, Arabic, and Persian, as well as in philosophy, theology, and history. Pupils enter these schools at eighteen or twenty years of age, and receive board and lodging in special dwellings known as "Médressés," where they muster in numbers of

thirty or forty, and sometimes as many as a hundred. Of these Médressés, there are said to be no less than five hundred in Stamboul. During the sacred month of Ramazan, most of those students go into the provinces, and give courses of religious instruction in the country mosques. Leaving the Médressés at thirty-five or forty years of age, several of the students become cadis, muftis, or professors; many, however, enter upon no occupation. When the Ottoman Empire was at the summit of its power, the schools of the mosques enjoyed a high reputation, and several of the most eminent men of Turkey passed a portion of their educational course in the Médressés.

In addition to these public schools, accessible indiscriminately to all Mussulman youth, there are certain special schools to which the Government sends lads whom they wish to bring up to particular careers. The six principal establishments of this kind are the Military, Naval, Artillery, and Medical shools, and the schools for Military and Mining Engineers. Each of these has a preparatory school, called an Idadiyé, and all are gratuitous. The pupils pass from three to five years in the idadiyés, according to the length of their course in the rushdiyés, and

during this term they are perfected in Turkish reading and writing, and learn arithmetic, history, geography, and the rudiments of a foreign language, such as French or English. The programme of these special establishments corresponds fairly enough with the various careers for which the pupils are to be qualified, but much improvement is required in the preliminary instruction given in the idadiyés. There are a few other special schools in Constantinople of less general importance; such, for instance, as a training school for teachers in the rushdiyés; a school of languages for instructing the translators at the Porte; and a school for the instruction of managers of the vast forests of the empire.

The general law on public instruction, published by Imperial Hatt in 1869, decreed the establishment of the primary schools in all large towns, a provincial lyceum in every vilaët, and seminaries or colleges, for a higher order of instruction in Constantinople. The Dar-el-Founoun, or Turkish University, was opened during my recent visit to Stamboul, and each evening the vast hall (near the mausoleum of Sultan Mahmoud) was filled with an attentive audience that evidently appreciated the benefits to be derived from the

study of those scientific and commercial subjects which were being successively placed before them.

Azziz Effendi, professor at the medical school, delivered a very interesting lecture, illustrated by experiments, on "Chemistry;" Tahsin Effendi, director of the Dar-el-Founoun, discussed "The scientific properties of Water;" Wahid Effendi, professor of the medical school, gave a dissertation on the important question of "Cemeteries in relation to Public Health," and Munif Effendi, president of the administrative section of the Grand Council of Public Instruction, entertained his numerous hearers with an admirable lecture on "The Industrial Progress of the Country." Selim Effendi discoursed in a very lucid manner about "The Planets;" Azziz Effendi, again, on "Climate and Temperature;" Tahsin Effendi on "The Immense and the Microscopic," while the series of lectures was brought to a close by Munif Effendi, who discussed the not unimportant question of the "Sources of National Wealth." Munif Effendi also delivered the inaugural address in Turkish, of which the following is a condensed translation :—

"To conquer a country," said his Excellency, "to be avenged upon an enemy, to accomplish

other similar deeds which tend to satisfy the ambition of man, are considered by nations as great causes of congratulation. Yet, in the eyes of enlightened men, none of these triumphs equal that of erecting such a monument as this institution, which is destined to revive science, and diffuse the benefits of education. How can it be otherwise? Material conquests are invariably achieved at the expense of others, and the advantages obtained are always limited. But the benefits derived from moral conquests, those conquests that injure no one, are immense, for all humanity is the gainer.

"The efforts of our glorious Master and Sovereign have been crowned with success in many enterprises destined to consolidate his empire, and secure the happiness and prosperity of every class of his subjects. His Majesty has thus justly acquired a right to the thanks of every one; but, in my humble opinion, the reform of public instruction ought to be considered as the most important act of his reign. Those who are acquainted with the spirit and exigencies of our time, know that education is, to-day, the basis of prosperity and strength. Without education, none of the measures adopted for the reform of the country would have the

desired result, and even if a certain result were obtained, it would only be ephemeral. The wealth of a country and the strength of its government are in direct ratio with the degree of capacity and knowledge which the people possess in their industrial and other pursuits. The better individuals perform their several duties, the more will the country be rich and its government powerful. But to arrive at this result we must have instruction, for it is evident that the difference existing at the present day in the wealth and power of nations is owing to no other cause.

"Turkey has always been the protectress of science; the schools, the Médressés, and the libraries, at present existing in Constantinople and several other parts of the Empire, afford ample proof. Nevertheless, our epoch cannot be compared with any of the ages that have preceded it, for human intelligence has never before been so developed; while science, the marvellous effects of which we every day observe, has made immense progress and is constantly advancing. Under these circumstances, our present scientific institutions are no longer sufficient, particularly as the schools and médressés, are, in great part, devoted exclusively to Mussulmans; and the

Imperial Government, therefore, has for a long time felt the necessity of a University like this in which modern science would be taught, and which would be open to all His Majesty's subjects. Our neighbours in Europe, thanks to the efforts they have made for so many years, have greatly progressed in the knowledge of science, and have, by that means, attained to a high degree of civilization. It is not consistent with the interests of this country, nor with the dignity of the government, to remain behind.

"The late Sultan Mahmoud, illustrious father of our Sovereign, made considerable sacrifices for the purpose of re-organising his army, and thus saved the Empire from a great danger; but the reform that our august Master has just accomplished in public instruction will, undoubtedly, be even more salutary in its influence, by strengthening the foundations of the Empire, and increasing his power and glory. Since the establishment of the regular army, military schools have been instituted for the preparation of officers, but, unfortunately, no University was founded in which civil functionaries and other classes of the population could easily learn the higher sciences. If the study of certain sciences is necessary to enable men to fight against an

enemy, is it not equally so to qualify them for equipping and provisioning the troops as well as to fit them to undertake other positions to which the interests of the country may call them? Besides, civil-service officials constitute the intellectual faculty of the State, and, the reins of power being confided to their hands, it is, I think, one of the first duties of the State to provide proper means for their training and instruction, so that they may be able to fulfil their duties in the most satisfactory manner. Thus, this University, in addition to other measures that are being adopted, will tend to the realisation of that great end, and produce, I am convinced, important results not only in the spread of education, but in the industrial progress of every part of the Empire. And as, at the present day, all Ottoman subjects are admitted, without distinction of race or creed, to the enjoyment of equal civil rights, so, in this establishment, they will learn science and morals together, thus drawing closer those fraternal ties that ought to connect them.

"His Highness the Grand Vizier, who is animated with the most enlightened sentiments, as well as the other Ministers, particularly His Excellency Savfet Pasha, Minister of Public

Instruction, will continue to give their aid and assistance towards the progress of this institution, which, with the blessing of God, will be the means of producing instructed and enlightened men, amongst whom the Ministry of His Majesty will find functionaries capable of one day succeeding them. As for myself, placed by chance in this position, I am happy to proclaim here the beneficence of our Sovereign, who has endeavoured to insure the future prosperity of the country by the establishment of an institution destined to regenerate his empire."

CHAPTER VI.

THE CAPITULATIONS.

THE jurisdiction exercised by our Consuls in Turkey is a subject of very great importance, and one upon which serious differences of opinion exist. But I doubt if there is any person—practically acquainted with the country, and having no personal interests to serve—who is not convinced that some modifications are necessary in the relations existing between the Porte and the various European Consulates in the Ottoman empire.

It is quite true that in those early days preceding the Cromwellian era—when the master-mariners of England shaped their course for the dominions of the Grand Seignior in pardonable dread of the corsairs of Tunis and Barbary, and when the Christian and the Mussulman entertained, for each other, undisguised senti-

ments of hatred and contempt—it was the duty of our ambassadors at the court of the Sultan to obtain for British subjects the most comprehensive measures of protection in all matters affecting either their persons or property.* Now, however, that Turkey has fairly entered into the community of nations, that her administrative system has been remodelled, and the equality of all before the law declared; now that the universal brotherhood of man is recognised as paramount to the claims of sect, and her commerce ramifies to every trading centre in the world, some of the points conceded by the Porte in the Capitulations seem to be singularly unsuited to present circumstances, and demand such revision as may be in accordance with existing requirements.

The rights and privileges of foreigners in Turkey are regulated by a series of ancient conventions which are better known to jurists as the

* Article XIX of the Capitulations. That if the corsairs or galliots of the Levant shall be found to have taken any English vessels, or robbed or plundered them of their goods and effects; also if anyone shall have forcibly taken anything from the English, all possible diligence and exertion shall be used and employed for the discovery of the property, and inflicting condign punishment on those who may have committed such depredations; and their ships, goods, and effects shall be restored to them without delay or intrigue.

Capitulations. What those Capitulations really are, however, but few, I believe, in this country accurately understand. A vague impression prevails that, as they confer upon foreign residents a great many exceptional privileges, and exempt them from almost every sort of correlative obligation to the native government, these Capitulations were, at one time, wrested from the fears and weakness of the Ottoman Government. Nothing, however could be more historically inexact.

Turkey was a great and conquering power when she signed those Capitulations; and they were certainly not granted out of consideration to our position as a nation, for the time when they were confirmed was that in which our ships were being burned by the Dutch, and our trade and credit were at their lowest ebb. The germ of the Capitulations is to be found in the protective privileges enjoyed by the Genoese under the Lower Empire, and confirmed to them by Mohammed II. after the capture of Constantinople. The Crescent had, however, displaced the Cross on St. Sophia for more that eighty years before any record appears of their extension to the other Western Powers. It was not, in fact, until 1535 that France, the first of the Royal Governments thus favoured, obtained some similar concessions for

its merchants from Solyman the Magnificent, on the eve of that monarch's alliance with Francis I. against the Emperor Charles V., who had, some months before, attacked and taken Tunis. But, assuredly, neither France nor any other State in Europe could have wrested anything from the conqueror of Belgrade, of Rhodes, of Buda, and, very nearly, of Vienna. Whatever was conceded was, on the contrary, the result of imperial magnanimity and free grace.

Nearly a century more passed away before English merchants were similarly favoured; Murad IV. being the first to extend to them like privileges to those enjoyed by the French. It was not, however, until 1675 that the protective rights, from time to time accorded, were formally ratified; as in that year "capitulations and articles of peace" were entered into between Mohammed IV. and the English Government, confirming and extending what had previously been granted. The convention then concluded consists of seventy-five clauses, and the very terms on which it assures "protection" to our countrymen of that day adventuring in the perilous field of Turkish commerce, afford the best disproof of the power of the Stuart King to wrest even a recognition of equality from "the King of Kings of the world,

the Prince of Emperors of every age, the Dispenser of crowns to monarchs, and the Champion Sultan Mohammed."* It was, in fact, distinctly stated

* The following is the preamble to the Capitulations.

SULTAN MOHAMMED, MAY HE LIVE FOR EVER!

"Let everything be observed in conformity to these Capitulations, and contrary thereto let nothing be done."

The command, under the sublime and lofty Signet, which imparts sublimity to every place, and under the imperial and noble Cypher, whose glory is renowned throughout all the world, by the Emperor and Conqueror of the earth, achieved with the assistance of the Omnipotent, and by the special grace of God, is this:

We, who by Divine grace, assistance, will, and benevolence, now are the King of Kings of the world, the Prince of Emperors of every age, the Dispenser of Crowns to Monarchs, and the Champion Sultan Mohammed, Son of Sultan Ibrahim Khan, Son of Sultan Ahmed Khan, Son of Sultan Mohammed Khan, Son of Sultan Murad Khan, Son of Sultan Selim Khan, Son of Sultan Solyman Khan, Son of Sultan Selim Khan.

The most glorious amongst the great Princes professing the faith of Jesus, and the most conspicuous amongst the Potentates of the nation of the Messiah, and the umpire of public differences that exist between Christian nations, clothed with the mantle of magnificence and majesty, Charles the Second, King of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland (whose end terminate in bliss!) having sent an Ambassador to the Sublime Porte in the time of our grandfather Sultan Murad (whose tomb be ever resplendent!) of glorious memory and full of divine mercy and pity, with professions of friendship, sincerity, devotion, partiality, and benevolence, and demanding that His subjects might be at liberty to come and go into these Parts, which permission was

that the Capitulations were granted "through friendship," and it was made matter of special imperial favour that the King of England might "with his own money, purchase at Smyrna, Salonica, or any other port of our Sacred Domi-

granted to them in the reign of the Monarch aforesaid, in addition to various other special commands, to the end that on coming and going, either by land or sea, in their way, passage, and lodging, they might not experience any molestation or hindrance from anyone.

He represented, in the reign of our grandfather Sultan Mohammed Khan (whose tomb be ever resplendent!) to our just and overshadowing Porte, His cordial esteem, alliance, sincere friendship, and partiality thereto. As such privilege, therefore, had been granted to the Kings and Sovereigns of France, Venice, and Poland, who profess the most profound devotion for our most eminent throne, and to others between whom and the Sublime Porte there exists a sincere amity and good understanding, so was the same, through friendship, in like manner granted to the said King; and it was granted Him that His subjects and their interpreters might safely and securely come and trade in these our sacred Dominions.

The Capitulations of sublime dignity and our noble commands having been, through friendship, thus granted to the Kings aforesaid, and the Queen of the above-mentioned Kingdoms having heretofore also sent a noble personage with presents to this victorious Porte, which is the refuge and retreat of the Kings of the world, the most exalted place, and the asylum of the Emperors of the universe (which gifts were graciously accepted), and She having earnestly implored the privilege in question, Her entreaties were acceded to, and these our high commands conceded to Her.

nions, in fertile and abundant years, and not in times of dearth or scarcity, two cargoes of figs and raisins for his own kitchen;"* and better still, is was graciously conceded that Embassy dragomans should not be reproved, beaten, or put in prison without the knowledge of the Ambassador —a proof that official interference with the Porte involved much greater risks in those days than at present.†

* Article LXXIV of the Capitulations. That the King, having always been a friend to the Sublime Porte, out of regard to such good friendship, His Majesty shall and may, with his own money, purchase for his own kitchen, at Smyrna, Salonica, or any other port of our Sacred Dominions, in fertile and abundant years, and not in times of dearth or scarcity, two cargoes of figs and raisins, and after having paid a duty of three per cent. thereon, no obstacle or hindrance shall be given thereto.

† Article XXV. That the Consuls appointed by the English Ambassador in our sacred dominions, for the protection of their merchants, shall never, under any pretence, be imprisoned, nor their houses sealed up, nor themselves sent away; but all suits or differences in which they may be involved shall be represented to our Sublime Porte, where their Ambassadors will answer for them.

Article XLV. That the Ambassadors of the King of England, residing at the Sublime Porte, being the representatives of His Majesty, and the interpreters the representatives of the Ambassadors for such matters, therefore, as the latter shall translate or speak, or for whatever sealed letter or memorial they may convey to any place in the name of their Ambassador, it being found that that which they have interpreted or translated is a true interpre-

In fact, the continuance of these stipulations in their present form is, now-a-days, a huge anachronism, and renders the admission of Turkey into "the European family" a mere one-sided arrangement; for while she is expected to discharge to the letter all the duties arising out of such new fellowship, these antiquated checks on her rights and powers within her own territory remain as operative now as they were upwards of two hundred years ago. In no other country in the world, having equal rank as a state, do foreigners hold such a privileged position as in Turkey. For example, they are exempt from all imposts whatsoever, either state or municipal, customs' dues alone excepted; they may lead a life of pleasure or of business; may settle and amass wealth, or may travel and spend it; and at all times may claim the fullest protection which the laws of the empire are capable of affording, without contributing one piastre to the expenses of the state, and without being amenable, in the smallest degree, to Ottoman jurisdiction. If the

tation of the words and answers of the Ambassador or Consul, they shall be always free from all imputation of fault or punishment; and in case they shall commit any offence, our judges and governors shall not reprove, beat, or put any of the said interpreters in prison, without the knowledge of the Ambassador or Consul.

Porte construct a road, light a town with gas, or pave and cleanse the streets, it cannot compel the foreign residents to contribute a para towards the cost, while the whole system of taxation is rendered irregular and difficult in consequence of the mischievous obstructions offered by these charters in nearly every relation between the foreign population and the Government.*

All Englishmen will easily understand the position of a person residing in a country towards the expenses of which he is not bound to contribute, and to the laws of which he is not compelled to render obedience. There are few, however, that have not visited the Ottoman Empire, who are perhaps aware that throughout the dominions of the Sultan are officers named Consuls, who administer justice in the name and under the commission of their respective

* A few years ago, the Porte proposed to levy a tax on horses and donkeys in Constantinople, but the representatives of some of the Great Powers objected to the payment of this tax by their subjects on the ground that it was a "personal" tax from which they were exempted by the Capitulations. As some of the representatives would not allow it to be levied, of course, the others were under the necessity of refusing also; and as the Porte did not consider it just to levy a tax upon Turkish subjects, which foreigners refused to pay, the scheme dropped, and thus a considerable and legitimate source of revenue was abandoned.

sovereigns, and that a foreigner resident in Turkey is altogether independent of the civil or criminal courts of the country, and amenable only to justice as administered in his own Consulate.* Nay more, that there are a considerable number of natives who—having by some means obtained a foreign passport—claim, under the present system of Consular jurisdiction, the protection of that flag when the occasion answers, and thus contribute, not a little to the difficulties which arise every now and then between the Consuls and the Ottoman authority. If, for example, a foreigner were to commit a murder in Turkey, he could not be arrested without the

* Article XV. That in all litigations occurring between the English, or subjects of England, and any other person, the judges shall not proceed to hear the cause without the presence of an interpreter, or one of his deputies.

Article XVI. That if there happen any suit, or other difference or dispute, amongst the English themselves, the decision thereof shall be left to their own Ambassador or Consul, according to their custom, without the judge or other governors, our slaves, intermeddling therein.

Article XXIV. That if an Englishman, or other subject of that nation, shall be involved in any lawsuit, or other affair connected with law, the judge shall not hear nor decide thereon until the Ambassador, Consul, or Interpreter, shall be present; and all suits exceeding the value of 4000 aspers shall be heard at the Sublime Porte, and nowhere else.

authority of his own Consul, and if the said murderer happened to take refuge in the house of a foreigner of another nationality, the latter's house could not be entered without the presence of a delegate from that foreigner's Consulate.

In civil matters, things are even still more complicated, for if a merchant have a claim against a foreigner, he must prosecute it before the Consul or Consular Judge of the nation to which the defendant belongs, so that a merchant or shopkeeper may have to sue in fifteen or sixteen different courts for goods sold on credit to individuals of as many different nationalities, in each of which a different code of law is administered. Considered simply from our own point of view, this is a state of things sufficiently serious; but when the number of Consulates, necessarily existing in every large town, is borne in mind, the magnitude of the evil, as it affects the Turkish Government, becomes at once apparent. Our Consuls have no legal jurisdiction in Russia or Greece, and the condition of affairs under which the Capitulations were granted by the Porte has long ceased to exist. The entire system of consular protection, therefore, in the Ottoman empire requires complete

revision. It cannot be sustained, for one moment, that if the whole of the extraordinary immunities contained in the Capitulations were swept summarily away, the persons and property of foreigners in Turkey would be less safe than they are at present. Nor can analogy be adduced in proof of the assertion that the destruction of the ancient Capitulations would injuriously interfere with the integrity of the consular power, or the effective protection of its subjects.

The perplexing position in which the Turkish administration is placed towards the consular body, and the difficulties which the latter experience between their desire to do that which is obviously right, and yet make no admission calculated to injure the infallibility of their office, are evidences of the mischief which the system entails. The duties of a Consul in Turkey, especially in the large towns, are, besides, sufficiently onerous; and their labours should not, therefore, be increased, or their relations with the Turkish authorities complicated, by claims on their nationality justified neither by reason nor by expediency.

Frequent complaints were, some time ago, made because foreigners were not permitted to

hold real property in Turkey. The Porte, however, said, "We will allow you to purchase land, and exercise all the rights of ownership, on condition of your paying the usual fiscal imposts incident thereto, and obeying the laws." The foreign communities replied, "No; we must have the same rights in this matter as any subject of the Porte, but we will not concede one iota of the Capitulations, by which it is expressly stated that we are not liable to tribute or any other tax, nor subject to the laws."* And so the matter stood; the Government of the Sultan inviting foreigners to settle in the country on the only terms consistent with self-respect, and foreigners complaining because the Porte was not sufficiently lost to a sense of its own dignity to make concessions which could not be justified.

"The Government of the Sultan," said his Highness A'ali Pasha, "desires to act towards other nations according to the principles of the most civilized people. In return, it considers it is right, and as due to its own dignity and preservation, to invoke these same principles on its

* Article XIII. That all Englishmen, and subjects of England, who shall dwell or reside in our Dominions, whether they be married or single, artisans or merchants, shall be exempt from all tribute.

behalf. It is well known in what a position Turkey was when its relations with Europe commenced. A few foreign merchants, completely separated from the rest of the population, resided in the seaports of the Levant. They had hardly anything to do with the natives, and were entirely devoted to wholesale trade. The Ottoman Government granted them privileges which the state of society in which they lived, and the customs and habits of that time, had rendered necessary; but what existed then has given place to a state of things completely different.

"Europe has changed, and Turkey is no longer what she was. The relations between her and Europe are no longer the same. Everything there is changed, except those antiquated Capitulations, which are often put forward in order to justify pretensions incompatible with the present system, and of such a nature as to render impossible the regular course of the Government. Foreign subjects are, in virtue of the said Capitulations, only subject to their own authorities. It follows, then, that in the provinces of the Empire there are as many police administrations, as many tribunals governed by different laws, as there are Consulates. Consequently in any police matter,

as well as in everything relating to judicial, financial, and other administrations, the hand of the Government is paralysed in the name of this irregularity. The great inconvenience arising from such an extraordinary state of things, the insurmountable obstacles opposed to the accomplishment of the wishes of the Sultan to have order and regularity in all branches of the administration, are too evident to require enumeration, and the extent of them cannot be more fully appreciated by anyone than by those upon whom the responsibility of the government of the Empire rests.

"I am persuaded that if the Representatives who signed the collective note would take into consideration the preceding observations, they will admit, that, as long as such a state of things exists, it must be impossible for the Porte to adopt the course upon which they advise it to enter. In fact, how can it grant the right of establishing themselves as proprietors to populations who do not recognise its authority or its laws, and who do not submit to the obligations to which the subjects of His Imperial Majesty the Sultan are themselves subordinate, but to their own foreign tribunals. Everywhere else, where strangers enjoy the privilege of possessing pro-

perty, they are subjected to the police, the laws, and the tribunals of the nation amongst which they reside; they pay the same taxes as the people of that nation, and they do not expect to be treated more favourably than its own subjects."*

This, in fact, sums up nearly the whole question, and the least generous of us will admit that if the Porte is to be held to European obligations, it is, in turn, entitled to European rights, —and amongst the most primary of these, are the rights of taxation and police. The horse-tax, I have mentioned, was only one of many legitimate sources of revenue that are closed against the Turkish Government by the difficulty of imposing fiscal burdens, however just, on its own subjects, from which foreigners—liable to similar imposts everywhere but in Turkey—are there exempt. So, too, it is with the police : privileges which were essential to the personal protection of foreigners a couple of centuries ago, are now no longer necessary in the same sense or to the

* Pending a revision of the old Treaties, a new Law has been promulgated by the Porte, granting to Foreigners the right of holding real property in the Ottoman Empire, without any other condition than that of submitting to the laws and regulations which bind Ottoman subjects themselves. (See Appendix).

same extent, but have, on the contrary, become painful sources of abuse. It is evident, therefore, that such modifications as will adapt conventions framed in 1675 to the altered circumstances of 1872 are urgently required. Many of the privileges granted by Mohammed IV. have become obsolete by the mere progress of civilization, while, of those that remain, not a few are at variance with every principle of political equity.

CHAPTER VII.

TURKEY AS A FIELD FOR EMIGRATION.

NOTWITHSTANDING the trifling distance, as regards time, which now separates Turkey from England, there is, probably, no country in Europe of whose internal state more erroneous ideas exist. Most persons, allowing their imagination to carry them back to the days when the haughty and bigoted Turk looked down upon the *Giaour* as the abject slave who should minister to his pleasures and his wants, forget the various changes which have occurred since, by one severe and effectual blow, Sultan Mahmoud destroyed for ever the pride and fanaticism of the Moslem. With the destruction of the Janissaries (June 15, 1826) fell that military despotism under which both prince and people groaned, and the Sultan was then, for the first time, enabled to begin those salutary reforms which the exi-

gencies of an advancing civilisation required. Since that day, Turkish statesmen have become amenable to foreign counsel; the ancient bigotry has disappeared, and been replaced by a religious tolerance which is certainly not surpassed, if even equalled, in any country in Europe;* whilst the

* "To those who remember what Turkey was thirty or forty years ago, the improvement of the position of the Christians, and in particular the change in the bearing of the Sovereign and of the high Ottoman functionaries, appear immense."—*Lord Lyons's Report to the Foreign Office, May* 6, 1867.

"With respect to religious freedom and toleration, the Christian subjects have no cause for complaint. A firman is, indeed, required for the erection of a new church; but so it is also for a new mosque, and it is granted, perhaps, with too much facility in either case. Bells are put up and rung, crosses and pictures carried about, and ecclesiastical dresses worn everywhere and openly."—*Mr. Consul Palgrave, Trebizond.*

"Religious toleration on the part of the Government exists in a degree not equalled in all European communities."—*Mr. Consul Skene, Aleppo.*

"The inhabitants of these islands (the Sporades), who are all Christians, enjoy privileges which are quite unknown, not only in Turkey, but in any other part of the world."—*Mr. Vice-Consul Biliotti, Rhodes.*

"I think it would be difficult to find many countries in which toleration is more largely practised, and in which the governing class allows its subjects more perfect enjoyment of their respective religions than in Turkey."—*Mr. Consul Blunt Adrianople.*

"The condition of the Christians has immensely improved."—*Mr. Consul Rogers, Damascus.*

"All the Christians in Epirus, with the exception of a few

old jealousy towards the Frank has been succeeded by a cordial friendship and by the most unbounded hospitality.

In Turkey, hospitality appears under a grand and noble aspect. It is not only a momentary shelter from the storm; it is a hospitality which, rising from the dignity of mere benevolence to that of a political reception, embraces the future as well as the present. As soon as the stranger places his foot on Turkish soil, he is saluted by the name of *musaffir* (guest). Civil, commercial, and religious liberty is secured to him; his own laws are administered by functionaries of his own nation; unlimited free trade exists; while, by the State, the Moslem is recognized only in

foreigners, belong to the Greek Church. The places of worship are numerous, their services are frequent, and some of their ceremonies and processions are attended with much display. But they are never interfered with in their religious exercises."—*Mr. Consul Stuart, Epirus.*

"When I first became acquainted with Turkey, more than thirty years ago, I could never have expected to see social equality realised to the extent it has now been, and that in so short a period."—*Mr. Consul-General Longworth, Belgrade.*

"The Sultan, wishing in his own person to set a conspicuous example of tolerance to all his subjects, has recently adopted the unprecedented step of taking several Christians into the Palace as domestic servants, who are placed on the same footing and receive precisely the same treatment as his Mussulman attendants."—*Levant Herald June* 14, 1871,

his mosque, the Christian in his church, and the Jew in his synagogue.

This civil, commercial, and religious liberty, granted to the stranger, renders Turkey, not only a favourable field for English capital and enterprise, but also an eligible home for those who are daily seeking in distant lands the comforts and independence denied them in their own. In fact, the "hewers of wood and drawers of water" are at the present moment one of the desiderata of Turkey—the paucity of hands being a serious obstacle to the development of the great natural resources of the empire. In most civilised countries, there appears to be an irresistible attraction which draws men of energy and intelligence from the rural districts into populous towns, and makes them prefer the active bustle of city life to the peaceful tenor of a pastoral existence. In Turkey, from the operation of various causes, the principal cities, such as Constantinople, Smyrna, Salonica, Trebizond, and Beyrout, are filled with a busy crowd unceasingly engaged in the pursuits of commerce, while, in the country, agriculture languishes from the want of hands necessary to till the soil. In Macedonia, for example, which possesses a delightful climate, only one-fourth part of the land

is under cultivation, and even that does not yield one-third of what it is capable.

Cyprus, which, in the time of the Venetians, possessed a population of one million, now contains only one hundred and eighty thousand. The Pashalic of Damascus, which extends, North to South, from Hamah on the Orontes down to the deserts of Arabia Petræa, south-east of the Dead Sea—a length of about four degrees of latitude—is extremely fertile, and capable of supporting a population of six millions of souls, whereas, at present, the population is not more than five hundred thousand. This state of the rural districts is apparent all over the empire, and may be traced to that baneful system of farming the taxes which prevailed from the reign of Mohammed II. to that of the late Sultan Abdul-Medjid. Formerly, the taxes of a province were usually farmed by the Pasha or Governor for the time being, who, knowing that his tenure of power was most uncertain, invariably governed the Pashalic for his own personal advantage, ignoring altogether the interests both of the people and the State.

It is related by Volney that the merchants of Aleppo, dissatisfied with the numerous inconveniences of Alexandretta, wished to abandon

that port, and carry the trade to Latakia. They proposed to the Pasha of Tripoli to repair the harbour of Latakia at their own expense, provided he would grant them an exemption from all duties during the space of ten years. To induce him to comply with this request, the merchants talked much of the advantages that would in time result to the whole neighbouring country. "But what signifies it to me," replied the Pasha, "what may happen in time? I was yesterday at Marash; to-morrow, perhaps, I shall be at Djeddah. Why should I deprive myself of present advantages which are certain, for future benefits I cannot hope to partake of?" Under such a rule as this, the unfortunate peasant was ground to the dust, the last para was extracted from him, and the poverty and depopulation of the country were the natural results.

Mahmoud II. endeavoured to remedy these evils; and his son, Abdul-Medjid, by the Hatti-Schériff of Gül-Hanè (November 3rd, 1839), fearlessly denounced the abuses of the ancient system, and declared his determination to reform altogether the mode of collecting the revenue. Since that time, no Government official has been permitted to farm the taxes, the condition of the peasant has improved, the Pashas no longer

possess unlimited power, while every man is guaranteed the fruit of his labour, and can do as he pleases with his own. It is true there is still much to be desired as to the mode in which the revenue is collected, but with all its disadvantages to the agriculturist, Turkey offers as favourable conditions for a happy existence as the immigrant can find in most other countries. Syria and Asia Minor are, comparatively, close to our shores; they possess a fertile soil, a delightful climate, a hospitable population, and are capable of producing in abundance everything necessary for the wants of man.

Approaching the subject practically, however, three questions present themselves, viz.—What has Turkey to gain from immigration? what may immigrants gain in Turkey? and which are the localities where the mutuality of advantage would be most complete? The first of these queries involves no very subtle problem. The present population, as I have said, is in many districts insufficient, and any importation of fresh labour, intelligence, energy, or wealth, so it be in a tax-paying shape, would be a direct strengthening of the empire's weakest point—its Treasury; while it would afford an example to, and tend to rouse emulation in, the native proprietors and tillers of

the soil. At the same time, the peaceful character of the element introduced—its freedom from political bias, and the involvement of its own welfare in that of the State—divest it of every suspicion of proving in the future a source of disquiet.

An ordinance was, some time ago, issued by His Majesty the Sultan, which offers important advantages to immigrants. By the principal clause therein it was decreed that "whoever shall clear uncultivated and neglected lands, and convert them into cultivated fields, shall receive such lands gratuitously, and without charge; and title-deeds shall be delivered to him on the sole condition that he will pay three piastres (sixpence) by way of stamp duty. Further, the produce of these lands shall be exempt from the payment of tithes for one year; or, should the land be stony, for two years. If amongst the lands thus cultivated, any should be found in which the *cessionnaire* cultivates cotton, the exemption from the tithe, or any payment made in lieu of tithe, shall be extended to five years." The natural advantages possessed by Turkey, in its climate and geographical position, are enjoyed by few other countries in the world, and enormous tracts, where water is plentiful and the soil

most fruitful, could be readily obtained; and when it is considered that Turkey in Asia possesses an area of six hundred and seventy-three thousand, seven hundred and forty-six square miles, with a population of but sixteen millions, and fifty thousand, giving only 23·8 to the square mile, it may be imagined what a vast extent of fertile land is there lying unproductive. European Turkey also presents considerable advantages of climate, supplemented by accessibility of position; but the political unrest which affects these districts would tend, so long as it continues, to neutralize the advantages which the Government would derive from immigration; and when it yields to repose, the power of self-development in the native population sufficing, might turn the foreign element into an incumbrance. On the other hand, the rich peninsula of Asia Minor appears to be free from all these objections. It vegetates in the enjoyment of the most perfect tranquillity; it nourishes no sort of political ferment, nor the elements of any; the population is loyal and submissive; scanty besides, and poor but progressive; the Mussulman residents are not fanatical; the Greek population not haunted by "great ideas," nor, for the matter of that, by small ones either; the climate is, on the whole, salubrious, and the soil sufficiently varied in its

capacity to allow of new paths being opened towards the development of its resources. This district is of no mean extent, containing some one hundred and twenty thousand square miles, of which it will be remembered that a western colony—the Galatians—occupied no small proportion some two thousand years ago.

It now, however, differs from any other modern colonial field, in that the population is not imperfect and increasing, but complete, though diminishing. That is to say, the agricultural, commercial, and industrial elements all exist in their due proportion. The landed proprietors find all the labour they require, and the labourers full employment. There is a market for all the produce grown, and native craftsmen adequately minister to the simple wants of the other classes. Thus there is no opening for labourers alone, nor for artizans alone; a butcher, a baker, a tanner, a mason, a carpenter, or a miller might find a vacancy here and there for the exercise of his calling in one of the seaport towns; but these opportunities are too few to be worth calculating or even mentioning under the head of immigration. It is the wide spread of uncultivated land, and that only, which affords a field to foreign settlers, and it is, therefore, to agriculture that immigrants should direct their energies.

Next to the possession of some practical knowledge of agriculture, and intelligence to apply it to local circumstances, capital, sufficient for the work he proposes to undertake, is the first requisite for an immigrant. His land will cost him little; but he will find no buildings on it, and working stock and implements have to be purchased. He will require, moreover, about three times as much arable land as, with the same views regarding extent of culture, he would undertake in England. Because, 1st—manure cannot be purchased; 2nd—the raising or fattening of stock does not assume the prominence in Turkish which it does in English farming; 3rd—the manure made by his working stock will be in full demand for the portion of the farm amenable to irrigation; therefore, bare fallow has, as a rule, to supply the place of manure, and due allowance for this must be made in the area of land obtained or purchased. Further, no immigrant farmer should trust altogether to native labourers; not only would their comparative apathy thwart the energy he might himself possess, but their "feast-days" would be a perpetual hinderance to him, whether they were Turks or Christians. He should, therefore, bring out with him a sufficient staff of

labourers, with their families, to conduct the ordinary work of the farm; if possible, making the enterprise a co-operative one.* Then let him

* H.B.M's. Consul at Trebizond reports to the Foreign Office that the climate of Central Anatolia is dry, healthy, and bracing, and the hygienic conditions good, except in some of the deeper valleys, where intermittent fever occasionally appears. The forests are scanty, the general aspect of the region being that of a series of wide undulating plains with excellent pasturage, deep soil, and rocky stretches. There are large and rapid rivers in every direction available for irrigation as well as transport purposes, and clear springs of water abound. Cereals form the staple produce of the country, and corn and barley are of the best quality; turnips, carrots, beet, and all sorts of fruit succeed admirably with very little trouble. Silk and cotton also flourish, and the wool of the sheep reared on these pastures is exceptionally fine. It is useless for an isolated person to attempt to make his way; but he says that by co-operation in large bodies, composed solely of English capitalists and workmen, success might be looked upon as certain. This would be practically forming colonies for the establishment of factories, mills, &c., for improving the naturally fine agricultural capacities of the soil, breeding stock, cultivating silk, cotton, the vine, &c. Mining establishments, having regard to the undoubted mineral wealth of the country, silk and wool factories, as well as flour-mills, are in great demand, and would drive an excellent business, while it is stated that excellent arable land for farming purposes may be bought at about £2 per acre; strong, thickset horses cost from £3 to £7; a pair of oxen £6; a cow £2 10*s.*; a pair of buffaloes from £8 to £13: a sheep 8*s.* 6*d.*; a goat 7*s.*; a lamb 1*s.* 8*d.* In such matters, fact is more desirable than theory, and a remarkable case in point exists. There has been established for twenty years in the town of Amasia,

bear in mind that grain-growing, though comparatively a tame pursuit to an enterprising man, is almost a certainty in Turkey, and that, with ordinary care, it is fairly remunerative; but that cotton, tobacco, sesame, flax, and other Summer crops, though perhaps more tempting, require special study and local experience. The culture of the vine and wine-making, as well as that of the mulberry and rearing of silk-worms—if undertaken with an adequate amount of knowledge—are, however, as safe as grain-farming, and more profitable.

Fulfilling these conditions, steadily bent upon adopting the country with all its minor defects, and acting in conformity with the law granting

about seventy miles inland, a large silk spinning factory and flour mill, belonging to some South Germans, Krug, Stroh and Co. It is a complete colony of Protestant Germans. They have their own clergyman, doctor, tailor, smith, baker, carpenter, rear their own stock, cultivate their own vegetables, and, except for occasional common day labour, do not employ the natives at all. The experiment has proved such a complete success that a large body of German agriculturists are about to establish themselves in the neighbourhood of Kastamouni, not far from Angora, probably with the view of improving and increasing the breed of Angora sheep; the quality and value of the Angora fleeces in commerce being sufficiently known to make the venture a probably lucrative one. Here, then, is a large field for English capital, enterprise, and industry.

to foreigners the right of holding real property in Turkey, there is no reason why a band of agriculturists, or many of them should not lead as happy and profitable an existence in Syria or Asia Minor as in Australia or New Zealand (the climates are almost identical), with this advantage in favour of Syria and Asia Minor —that they are but a week or ten days' journey from "the old country."

PART III.

CHAPTER I.

BRITISH INTERESTS IN TURKEY.

IT may not be uninteresting to some of my readers to inquire what are the interests Great Britain has in the stability and progress of the Ottoman Empire. It is a question I have been frequently asked, as most persons only look at the matter from a political point of view, and are little acquainted with those material interests by which, after all, nations as well as individuals are, to a great extent, actuated. The answer, however, is very simple. Apart from political considerations, our interests in Turkey consist in the fact that she is one of the best customers we have for our products and manufactures, and that, besides, we are her creditors for loans to a considerable extent.

Forty years ago, the integrity of the Ottoman Empire was comparatively of little importance to

us, as, in the year 1827, the entire exports from Great Britain to Turkey did not exceed the insignificant sum of £531,704. At present, the question bears a very different aspect, seeing that the annual exports of our manufactured goods to Turkey, exclusive of Egypt, amount to the large sum of eight millions sterling. These exports have been increasing for some years past. Thus, in the year 1853, they amounted to £2,515,395; in 1857, to £4,012,242; in 1860, to £5,237,105; in 1864, to £7,501,988; and in 1869 to about £8,000,000. At one time, Turkey was noted for the cunning and skill of her handicraftsmen, but since the invention of the powerloom, and the application of steam to nearly every department of manufacturing industry, she has become a purely agricultural country. The numerous and varied manufactures which formerly sufficed not only for the consumption of the empire, but also stocked the markets of the Levant, as well as those of several countries in Europe, have, in some instances, declined, and, in others, become altogether extinct. The manufactures in steel, for which Damascus was so famous, no longer exist; the muslin-looms of Scutari and Tirnova, which in 1812 numbered two thousand, are now

reduced to less than two hundred; the silk looms of Salonica, numbering from twenty-five to twenty-eight in 1847, have now fallen to eighteen; while Broussa and Diarbekhr, which were so renowned for their velvets, satins, and silk stuffs, do not produce a tenth part of what they yielded thirty years ago. Bagdad was once the centre of flourishing trades, especially of calico-printing, tanning, and preparing leather, pottery, jewellery, &c. Aleppo was still more famous, for its manufactures of gold thread, of cotton tissues, cotton and silk, silk and gold, and pure cotton called nankeens, gave occupation to more than forty thousand looms, of which, at present, there remain only about five thousand. Various causes have contributed to this decrease of manufacturing industry; and now Sheffield steel supplies the place of that of Damascus; cloths and every variety of cottons have supplanted silk; English muslins are preferred even to those of India, and the shawls of Persia and Cashmere have given way to those of Glasgow and Manchester. While, however, the manufacturing industry has thus fallen off, the producing power of the country itself has considerably increased, and Turkey is capable of supplying Europe to an indefinite extent, not only with those ordinary raw

materials which form everywhere the great staples of food and manufacture, but also with those rarer articles of merchandise which can only be abundantly and profitably produced under conditions of special advantages as regards climate and geographical position. In the year 1860, when we wanted grain, Turkey sent us wheat, barley, and maize to the value of £3,011,277, and she now sends us cotton, silk, wool, grain, fruit, gums, drugs, madder root, olive oil, opium, sponges, tallow, tobacco, valonia, &c., &c., to the amount of six millions sterling per annum. On our side, we send Turkey cotton and woollen manufactured goods, hardware and cutlery, coal, furniture, glass manufactures, machinery, refined sugar, &c., &c., to the amount of upwards of £8,000,000.

British commerce in the Levant, as I have stated, has increased considerably; but it is far from having attained its fullest development. The growth of the external trade of the United Kingdom, as demonstrated in the returns periodically issued by the Board of Trade, is, it is true, highly gratifying to our national pride, and evidences the intensity and catholicity of our business enterprise. Not only are we keen competitors with other nations in almost

every mart where the standard of civilization has been planted, but an incessant war is waged between our merchant princes, as the representatives of social advancement, on the one hand, and uncivilized tribes, who strenuously resist the encroachment of modern ideas, on the other. To open new markets for the produce of our looms and furnaces is a distinct profession in the world of commerce —a profession which is followed with such earnestness and devotion as, in the absence of other evidence, to induce the belief that our trade with old countries has been pushed to its utmost extent consistent with commercial safety.

Such, however, is really not the case, as, notwithstanding the great increase of the trade and commerce of Turkey, the magnificent seaboard of the Levant and the various islands of the Archipelago are, comparatively, but little known to the steam navigation enterprise of England. With the exception of the direct lines of steamers from London and Liverpool, there are scarcely any steamers under the British flag to be found in Ottoman waters. The steamers of the French Messagéries, Austrian Lloyd's, and Russian Steam Navigation Company have, on the coutrary, gone

on increasing in a most extraordinary manner, and while the trade between Great Britain and Turkey has, in the space of ten years, increased fifty per cent., that between France and Turkey has increased a hundred per cent., and that between Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Turkey has progressed in an equal degree.

It is rather strange that, although our influence should be paramount in Eastern waters, and the spirit of maritime enterprise is so peculiarly the characteristic of our countrymen, we, nevertheless, permit ourselves to be outstripped by the French and Germans. Our shipowners complain, yet the carrying trade of the Levant is passing from our hands, and our merchants bewail the quietness of markets and paucity of orders, whilst our neighbours in Europe are, in many places, monopolising the trade and pocketing the profits which, by right, ought to be ours.

Thus, it will be seen how important, in a commercial point of view, is the material interest which England has in the well-being of Turkey; for it must be obvious that the more she is left peaceably to manage her own affairs, and develop her internal resources, the more will the productive power of the country, and, as a natural sequence,

the purchasing power of the people be augmented and the larger will be the market for our merchandize and manufactures. The agricultural resources of Turkey at present are great, but those which remain dormant are so vast as to be practically unlimited. The whole stretch of country between the Syrian coast-range and the Euphrates is capable of cotton production to an extent hardly conceivable, except by those who are acquainted with the topography of the district. The uncultivated area of Asia Minor is very large, while in European Turkey, although in some places the land is so fruitful that two crops of grain are obtained from it in the year, the same state of things exists.

To those, however, who take a sincere and practical interest in the fortunes of the Ottoman Empire, there is no more encouraging subject of contemplation than the vast natural, though only partially developed resources of the country. The difficulty, it is true, with which a revenue is collected sufficient to meet the outgoings of the State, is matter of every day comment; and from this the inference is easily deducible that Turkey is poor, and, consequently, as a Government, doomed to extinction. But when her rolling, untilled plains—her vast, un-

trodden mountain slopes—her waste of waters lazily flowing through her alluvial valleys—her unhewn forests of oak, and walnut, and box, and beech—her unworked minerals, and her range of climate, are weighed in the balance, the conclusion is irresistible that Turkey is destined yet to hold a place among nations second to none in natural wealth and individual influence. No country can be really poor when coal and iron are numbered with its minerals; no country can be divested of international importance the soil of which is capable of ministering to the prime necessities of the human race; and that country cannot be deprived of commerial rank which possesses a seaboard on three continents.

The serious mistake, however, which most people commit in reference to Turkey is in forgetting that, though great the paradox, the country is still young. We must remember that it is only within living memory that the Osmanlis have fairly taken their place in the councils of the European continent. Since the reign of Mahmoud II. one Sultan only has come and gone; but, in the interim, Turkey has progressed with rapid strides. In the army, the navy, in education, in social science, public works, and in everything which indicates the progressive

tread of an enlightened legislation, she has made important progress, and there can be little doubt that there remains for Turkey a future of usefulness, honour, and power.

CHAPTER II.

TURKISH FINANCES.

"WHEN a country is overwhelmed with debt, with an enormous deficit in its budget, without power of retrenchment, and with its resources exhausted, then, indeed, the statesman and financier, however great their ability and skill, may well despair of being able to retrieve the public credit. But in a country like Turkey, whose debts do not exceed some three years' revenue, where large retrenchments may be made without injury to the public service, where taxation is only oppressive by its unequal distribution, and where immense resources abound on every side, a temporary deficit in the Budget, although it may be, for the moment, a source of embarrassment to the Government, cannot afford a legitimate ground for anxiety or distrust." The present financial position of Turkey proves the correctness of this statement which I

made just ten years ago.* The Budget published in 1862 showed the receipts to have been £11,164,552, while the Budget now issued states the revenues, for the present year, to be £T.20,637,210;† and that, too, with little or no actual increase of taxation, which amounts at present to not more than ten shillings per head—a sum much less than in most countries in Europe.

Notwithstanding this great increase in the revenues of Turkey, there are still habitual detractors of the Porte who decry Turkish securities, and repeat the old arguments which have so often done duty, and with damaging effect, too, before the English public learned better to estimate the value of such warnings. If a railway is to be made, some Levantine economist is sure to declare that it will never pay; or if a loan, necessitated by an insurrection or the transformation of the country's armaments, is thought of, some alarmist at once raises the cry that new money is being borrowed to pay the interest on old debts. Frequently, also, an argument is urged against investments in Turkish loans, on the ground that the stock is quoted at terms to pay from nine to twelve

* "The Resources of Turkey," 1862.

† A Turkish pound may be taken as equal to 18*s.* sterling.

per cent. interest, and, consequently, there must be a considerable risk.

From a Threadneedle Street point of view, there may be some reason in this, but it is apparently forgotten that in Turkey the legal rate of interest is twelve per cent., while in ordinary mercantile transactions the far more common rate is fifteen and even eighteen per cent. That the Government of a country, therefore, in which these are the ruling rates of interest on the very best mercantile paper, can obtain money both at home and abroad at an average of ten per cent., is surely no argument against the safety of its stock. There may be little analogy in point of absolute safety between English consols and Turkish "muttons," but if the former pay only three per cent. to investors, and the latter ten, much of the significance of the fact vanishes, when it is remembered that in Lombard Street money is worth only two, three, or, at most, four per cent.; while in Galata or Stamboul it can quite as readily, and on equally good security, command four times these rates. Nor should it be forgotten that, after all, the whole public debt of Turkey is less than five years of its revenue—certainly not a highly "hazardous" proportion

for a country so rich in ascertained and easily realisable natural wealth.

It cannot, it is true, be denied that the resources of Turkey are still less than half developed; that thousands of square miles of its best soil are untilled; that its forests are unproductive, and its minerals unworked. But it is exactly *because* the resources of the Empire are undeveloped, because its forests are virgin, its plains untilled, and its mines unworked, that it contains and offers to capitalists all the elements of a splendid security for any money that may be spent in realising these enormous natural riches. If the country were worked out, its forests cut down, and its deposits of coal, copper, silver, and lead exhausted, the risk of lending to it might then reasonably enough be alleged; but with the whole of these available for conversion into revenue, the security for ten times the present public debt of Turkey will be considered ample by all who know the country, and are without motive for misrepresenting its condition and prospects.

The cardinal error which many persons commit, is that they place the Ottoman Empire side by side with England or France, and, because the former does not come up to the financial standard

of the latter, unreasonably pronounce the Porte to be hopelessly "behind the age." No principle of comparison could be more unfair.

Fifty years ago, Turkey was, in fact, as much shut out from the rest of Europe as Persia is at the present time. The social, religious, and political separatism which the dominant section of her population had carried with them four hundred years before, from the cradle of their power in Asia, remained as rigorously complete on the accession of Mahmoud II. as it was at that of Amurath I. Isolated by the geographical situation of the larger half of her territory; by the absolute unfusibility of her five or six different races, she was shut out from the influences which, by degrees, and only by degrees, raised England and France from their semi-barbarism, under Edward III. and Philip of Valois, to the pre-eminence of refinement and power to which they have now attained. Many persons, however, in England, make no allowance for this. They argue as if Turkey had all the while enjoyed the full benefits of Western civilization, and yet perversely stood still, whilst the rest of Europe, with no greater advantages, went ahead in arts, literature, finance, and social polity. The fact is that the West has had four centuries start of

Turkey, and yet the detractors of the latter clamour because she has not been able to overtake her rivals in the race of civilization and financial development in the short space of fifty years.

It is true that, while the revenues of the Empire have increased, the expenditure has also increased; but in every branch of her administration, Turkey has accomplished many improvements. All the paper money—and a great portion of the base currency—have been withdrawn from circulation. Within the past few years, she has constructed an imposing ironclad navy; modernized the armament of her land and sea forces; established at Constantinople and its neighbourhood naval and military arsenals which, in the eyes of competent judges, compare favourably with those of other European States; and spent, at least, five millions sterling in the construction of highways, roads, and other works of public utility.

Much, however, remains to be done in reference to the proper assessment of the taxes. Most of the taxes which are exacted in the provinces are not levied in the capital; and Constantinople, considering its extent and population, could easily contribute three millions sterling a year towards

defraying the expenditure of the Empire, if it were not, as it is, exempt from all personal and land taxation. The stamp duties only yield £T.200,000, and those on spirits £T.244,950, while the tithes and customs' duties do not produce anything like what they are capable of.

The Customs' duties, for the present year, are estimated to produce £T.2,151,405 ; but Mr. Barron, Her Majesty's Secretary of Embassy at Constantinople, says, in his Report to the Foreign Office, that "considering the geographical position of Turkey, and the quantity of merchandize which passes through her ports, those duties should yield a much larger revenue than at present. A great desideratum, however, is a good system of warehousing in bond. Of this, Turkey is at present destitute, so that merchants are obliged to import from hand to mouth. A good bonding system would encourage importation, and materially aid in the just collection of the duty. The erection of docks and bonded warehouses could be readily accomplished by private enterprize, and would supply a keenly-felt want, as, at the present moment, goods to the value of £50,000 to £100,000 are constantly exposed in lighters, for weeks together, to all the risks arising from the weather."

The tax on sheep is an important source of Turkish revenue, and is estimated to yield £T.2,049,700, an amount which might be greatly increased, could a reliable return of numbers be even approximately obtained. It would, however, be unreasonable to expect, from a country situated like Turkey, that which is found to be all but impossible in countries highly cultivated, and with systems of government thoroughly engrafted in the affections of the people. A perfect system of agricultural statistics is the aim of the Executive in every wisely-governed State; but, whether the object has been the imposition of fiscal burdens, the better to care for the public health, or accurately guage the national wealth, the end has, in scarcely any instance, been attained.

Turkey, however, cannot with propriety be called a settled country. In Asia, there are vast tracts of pasture land in the occupation of nomad tribes, who own no direct allegiance except to their sheikhs, and whose wandering habits render the task of Government supervision for revenue purposes a practical nullity. In such a case as this, it is in the power of individuals to enter into compacts which the Government could not undertake without derogation of dignity; and the farming of such a tax may, therefore, be

considered the best available mode of obtaining its collection. This, however, does not apply with the same force to European Turkey, where the inhabitants are more localized, and the same difficulties in the way of direct collection, as in the Asiatic division of the Empire, do not exist. The tax upon sheep may with truth be denominated a quit-rent, which the proprietors of the flocks pay to the State; but, although the tax is small and seems to be easily borne, it is questionable whether the Government would not derive a larger income from a small rental on large tracts of land, parcelled out in similar fashion to our own Australian sheep-runs. The average of grass required for a given number of sheep is a known quantity; and it would be more satisfactory, both to the Government and the flock-masters, if this revenue were raised in a manner about which there could not be any dispute, either as regards the mode of collection or the amount returnable.

The *ushur*, or tithe, is a tax of one-tenth on all agricultural produce raised in the country, and is estimated to yield, for the present year, £T.7,495,675, but it might be made to yield at least 50 per cent. more. Such an impost, if levied with fairness, and with a due regard to the

interests of the cultivator, would, in a country like Turkey, not be an objectionable mode of recruiting the public purse; but when the State, anticipating the revenue, sells the probable produce of the tax by public tender, handing thereby the entirety of the agricultural population over to the mercies of ordinary speculators, the impost, which might otherwise be easily borne, is, in too many instances, converted into an insufferable burden. The loss, besides, to the State is manifold, as it cannot, of course, hope to receive anything like the amount which the tax might be fairly expected to produce.

The tithe of a whole district is usually sold to one individual, or one company of contractors, who first split up the district into divisions, and then sub-let them at a considerable profit. In this way the process of sub-division continues, until the tax is vested in the parties who collect the proceeds. On each of these sales and sub-sales, profits have been made, until the ultimate proprietor holds the dimes at a price very different from that paid to the Government, the profits so made constituting in reality so much revenue diverted from the public Treasury. As the actual *ushurdjee*, too, always calculates the price he is willing to pay on the basis of 30 per

cent. for collection, and 20 per cent. minimum profit for himself, the enormous loss to the State can be readily imagined. Moreover, should a season prove unfavourable, and the gross result fall short of the expected amount, it is not unusual for the contractors to plead *force majeure* in mitigation of their payments; while, should the value of the tithe be affected by any sudden fall in the produce markets, the estimation for the ensuing season will be proportionately low: and, although there may be every indication of an abundant harvest, the Government must submit to a heavy discount on the price of the previous year. Thus, looking at the monetary aspect of the case alone, the system is a losing one as far as the Porte is concerned, the only persons who really derive benefit being the *ushurdjees*.*

* Mr. Barron, Her Majesty's Secretary of Embassy at Constantinople, says in his official Report:—

"This tax, the tithe, is not collected directly by Government; but the right of collecting it is sold annually to the highest bidder during the course of the Spring. The speculators who purchase the tithes are called "multezim," *i.e.*, "appaltators," or farmers. One of these, after having bought a whole "sandjak," will sell his bargain in lots to others, who will again sub-divide their lots into "nabiyés" and villages. On each of these sales and sub-sales profits must be made, so that the State sells that for fifty which finally produces one hundred. The profits made in this

Apart, however, from what may be termed the Treasury aspect of the question, the Government suffers in the diminished attachment of the population to the institutions of the country, consequent upon its abnegation of direct action in such an important matter as the collection of the public revenue. Love of country is happily everywhere a sentiment of indigenous growth; but loyalty, to certain institutes of government, is easily enfeebled when the fulfilment of incumbent public duties is delegated to individuals

way by the higher contractors are known to be enormous, and have been the foundation of the largest fortunes in Turkey.

"The tithe is the only practicable land-tax in a country like Turkey. It is, moreover, recognised by the religion of Islam, and, combined with the sheep tax, itself a kind of tithe, was the only tax regularly enforced in the Arab and Turkish Empires. To remove all the abuses attendant on this or any other tax would be impossible. The object of a statesman should be to reconcile together the dictates of equity, the interests of the Treasury, and the national habits. On this principle the best expedient would seem to be an extensive application of the system of compounding for tithe. The system might be applied to whole "kazas," to communes, and even to single farms, either for one or several years in advance, and by a free consent of both parties. This would act as a powerful protection to the cultivator, as an incentive to improvement, and ultimately as a remunerative measure to the Treasury, though, perhaps, at a temporary loss. This system would tend to increase the taxable material, while the present mode of levying the tithe is like cutting down the tree to gather the fruit.

whose interests are opposed to the equitable exercise of their functions. The policy of the State should be to levy only such contributions on the population as may be requisite for the efficient upholding of its sovereignty, the administration of justice, and the general promotion of the public weal; and it is, moreover, the interest of the State to see to the equitable character of its incidence. The interest of the farmer of the revenue is, on the contrary, to enhance by every means in his power the value of the privilege which he has purchased, irrespective of any consideration affecting either the rights or well-being of the population.

The tithe of such a country as Turkey is too important a branch of revenue to be dissipated by mismanagement, and no more deservedly popular act could be credited to the Porte than the collection of the dimes in cash, by the agents of the State, for the sole benefit of the Treasury. If the farming of the tithe in Asia Minor and Syria were abolished in favour of direct collection, an addition to the revenue would be secured of so substantial a character as to compensate for any temporary inconvenience which might arise by the non-receipt of the usual early instalments from the contractors. The tithe of European

Turkey might be similarly treated in the following year; after which, other branches of revenue could be subjected to the same process.

Turkey, in relation to her population and area, is the most lightly taxed country in Europe. The mode in which these taxes are collected is the objectionable part of the system, although they may, perhaps, fall heavily on certain districts, and on certain classes of the people. By the substitution of direct collection for farming, the Treasury would be largely benefited, while a check would be put on the petty tyranny which is often practised in the realization of the taxes by the *ushurdjee*. The government of a State cannot be too much *en rapport* with the people. Many an evil is corrected, and many a wrong redressed, through their simply coming under the observation of a subordinate official; and, although the visits of an officer of revenue are not as a rule considered agreeable, experience teaches that his appearance is welcome in comparison to that of a neighbour who may be called upon to supplant the regular officers by collecting a tax in consideration of receiving a percentage on the proceeds. All considerations of public policy, therefore, point to the direct collection of revenue by the State, not the least

of which is the pecuniary advantage that would necessarily result to the Government itself.

Several other taxes, such as the *verghi* or property tax, the pig tax, and the receipts arising from the State forests, the post-office, &c., might be increased considerably in amount; while the revenue derived from mines is so trifling that the royalty from the working of one or two copper-mines in England, yields a larger annual revenue to the proprietor of the soil than that which the Ottoman Government derives from the whole of its vast mineral treasure.

CHAPTER III.

THE STOCK EXCHANGE.

A REFORM which, in point of actual necessity, occupies a foremost place in the business wants of Constantinople is the reorganization of the local Bourse on a system in accordance with the modes prevailing in the great financial centres of Europe. There is, it is true, a so-called Bourse at Galata, with a nominal committee of management, and there are so-called rules for the government of the place; but, in reality, the committee exists little more than in name, and the rules, even if suitable, remain without either authority or application.

The disadvantage to the credit of the Government, as well as to the general interest of the country, caused by the want of such an institution, must be obvious to anyone who considers the large aggregate to which Turkish securities of all kinds have now attained. The consolidated debt and foreign loans of the Government amount

to £93,465,636; the paid up capital in banking and financial establishments is upwards of £7,000,000; while the various shares and debentures of the railway, mining, and gas companies (not including the bonds of the Roumelian railways), represent a sum exceeding £5,500,000; making a total of upwards of one hundred and six millions sterling, viz.:—

TURKISH STOCKS.

Stock.	Original Issue.	Amount of Loan Unredeemed.
6 per cent. 1854	£3,000,000	£2,230,000
4 „ 1855	5,000,000	4,167,900
6 „ 1858	5,000,000	4,156,600
6 „ 1860	2,070,000	1,700,000
6 „ 1862	8,000,000	6,130,000
6 „ 1863-4	8,000,000	6,277,000
6 „ 1865	6,000,000	4,979,500
5 „ 1865 General Debt	36,363,636	36,363,636
6 „ 1869	22,222,220	21,761,000
6 „ 1871	5,700,000	5,700,000
	Total	£93,465,636

BANKS, &c.

	Capital Subscribed.	Capital. Paid up.
Imperial Ottoman Bank	£4,050,000	£2,025,000
Crédit Général Ottoman	2,000,000	1,000,000
Société Gén. de l'Empire Ottoman	2,000,000	800,000
Banque de Constantinople	1,000,000	1,000,000
Austro-Ottoman Bank	2,500,000	1,000,000
Crédit Austro-Turque	2,000,000	800,000
Bank of Roumania	1,000,000	400,000
	Total	£7,025,000

RAILWAYS.

Ottoman (Smyrna to Aidin) Shares .	£892,000	
„ „ Debentures	892,000	
		£1,784,000
Smyrna and Cassaba, Ordinary Shares	414,160	
„ „ Preference „	150,000	
„ „ Debentures	235,840	
		800,000
Varna		2,158,957
Danube and Black Sea,		
„ Ordinary Shares	£323,740	
„ Preference Shares . . .	75,000	
„ 8 per cent. Mortgage Bonds	100,000	
„ 10 „ „	59,563	
		558,303
		£5,301,260

	Subscribed.	Paid up.
Roumelian Railways. Nominal Capital . . .		£20,000,000
Constantinople Tramways . . .	£400,000	£160,000
Ottoman Gas. Capital	50,000	
„ Debentures . . .	13,950	
		63,950
Imperial Ottoman Mining Co. . .	50,000	43,000

Thus, the amount of financial business that might be locally transacted in Turkish stocks and shares, if a well-ordered Bourse existed, would fairly raise Constantinople to at least a third rate position among the exchanges of Europe; whereas, at the present moment, it holds no rank at all and has little or no financial authority whatever. Of

the local investments, I have mentioned, the only dealings are in shares of the Société Générale, the Crédit Ottoman, Roumelian railway bonds, and Constantinople Tramways; while, of the public debt of the empire, the only transactions are in *consolidés*, which to say the least, are conducted in a spirit of speculative gambling that, although profitable to the *habitués* of Khaviar Khan, undoubtedly results in the depreciation of the Government funds, and impaired confidence in their security as an investment on the part of the public. For any other local stocks or shares, including the various Turkish loans, a would-be investor must go to the London, Paris, or other foreign markets, or he must find out an individual holder with whom he can conclude a bargain. This, however, is a sort of transaction which is not likely to occur very frequently, as few men will seek after an article that, apparently, possesses no marketable value. Besides, confidence is not a plant of rapid growth; the soil in which it takes root must be cultivated, and the atmosphere in which it grows must be genial, otherwise suspicion is engendered that retards and ultimately destroys the community of interest with which alone financial transactions can be safely conducted. It is for

this reason, therefore, I urge the importance of establishing a well-organised Bourse on the model of those in London, Paris, and Vienna, wherein business shall be carried on with regularity, and by means of which the stagnant portable wealth of the country shall, in time, be brought into circulation for the common benefit of the Government and the people.

Another obvious disadvantage to the general prosperity of the country and the development of its various resources, which results from the want indicated, consists in the fact that the vast hoarded wealth of the country has thus no channels for safe and profitable investment. Unhappily, for a long series of years, the subjects of the Porte have, not perhaps without some cause in the past, looked with distrust on State securities as a means for investing their savings. Money, instead of being put out at interest, has been, and still is locked up in gems and costly jewellery, or in other ways still more profitless. This accumulated wealth, is useless and unproductive because it does not circulate, and the country, to all appearance, remains poor while it actually has within it a store of hidden riches sufficient to make it great and prosperous. The Government is obliged to sink its credit by asking foreign

capitalists to supply its moneyed wants, and promoters of schemes for the public good are compelled to find the necessary capital in Western Europe, while millions of hoarded money exist in the country, and industry languishes for want of the very wealth which is sedulously kept out of sight. Thus, financial and commercial enterprises are retarded, as a great objection naturally meets the introduction of any Turkish project on the foreign markets if it has not been first taken up, partly at least, in the country itself. From this cause, the project, be it either a public loan, a bank, railway, or other enterprise of public utility, is at once discredited, the market price immediately lowered, and its ultimate success seriously imperilled. This is not, however, the only injury which the indicated want entails; for if the people were educated, so to speak, as they might be into confidence in the local securities, not only would they be in receipt of large interest for their money from the Imperial Ottoman Bank and kindred institutions, but they would enjoy their eight, ten, or twelve per cent. from the public debt of the Government; while the large amount paid to foreigners in interest and bonus on annual drawings would remain in and enrich the country. On the other hand, in addition

to those advantages, there would be the no lesser one, that by the initiative being taken in the capital, an increased impulse would be given, and renewed facilities obtained for the successful floating of other enterprises calculated to benefit and develop the still hidden resources of the empire.

CHAPTER IV.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF THE EMPIRE, &c.

THE territorial area of the Turkish Empire is estimated at 1,836,478 square miles; but, as it is difficult to ascertain the limitations of the tributary provinces in Africa with any degree of exactness, and the boundaries of those portions of Arabia over which Turkey claims the right of sovereignty are rather indefinite, the statement of square mileage must be taken only as an approximate estimate.

Turkey in Europe comprises Thrace, Thessaly, Albania, Bulgaria, Bosnia, the Herzegovina, Roumelia, Servia, Roumania, and the Ottoman Archipelago. This division of the empire is watered principally by the Danube, the Maritza, the Koralu, the Iris, the Vojussa, and the Narenta, and has a seaboard on the Adriatic, the Ægean, the Marmora, and the Black Sea. Turkey in Asia consists of Anatolia, Armenia, Syria, Kurdistan, Mesopotamia, and part of Arabia. The

principal rivers are the Euphrates, the Tigris, the Orontes, and the Jordan; but the country is also watered by a considerable number of smaller streams having their outlets in the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf. Turkey in Africa is composed of Egypt, Tripoli, and Tunis, with an immense extent of seaboard on the Mediterranean, Egypt being watered by the Nile and its tributaries.

The population of the Ottoman Empire may be estimated at forty million souls, distributed in the following proportions :—

Turkey in Europe	17,000,000
„ „ Asia	18,000,000
„ „ Africa	5,000,000

and is composed of Osmanlis, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, Sclaves, Roumains, Albanians, Tartars, Arabs, Syrians, Chaldeans, Druses, Kurds, Turkomans, and Gipsies. As regards religion, the Mussulmans are numerically dominant, forming more than half the population of the Empire, then follow the Greeks, Armenians, and Catholics;*

* The term Catholic is applied to the disciples of all the Eastern churches which acknowledge the authority of the See of Rome, although there are amongst them numerous differences in matters of discipline and ceremonial. Of these Eastern Catholics there are :—

the Jews constituting a very insignificant minority, probably not more than 150,000.

The topographical and geological characteristics of the Ottoman Empire are eminently suited to the successful pursuit of agriculture. Hill and dale are pleasantly alternated, whilst the climatic range is so varied as to include the products of both the temperate and torrid zones. In Europe, the first mountain ranges are the Balkans and Carpathians; and in Asia, the Taurus and Lebanon. They are mostly of volcanic origin, and enclose valleys unsurpassed not only for their fertility, but also—with the exception of the vast prairies of the western hemisphere—for their extent. The uplands, both in Roumelia, and Asia Minor abound in fine pasturage for sheep and goats. The wools of Roumelia, the goats' hair of Anatolia, the silk of the Lebanon, have all world-wide reputation. Egypt is one vast hotbed for the production of grain and cotton, which are also produced

1. Latins, or Catholics, who use the Roman Liturgy, consisting of Greeks, Armenians, Bulgarians, Croats, &c., to the number of		640,000
2. United Greeks	25,000	
3. United Armenians	75,000	
4. Syrians and United Chaldeans .	20,000	
5. Maronites (with a Patriarch at Kanobin, on Mount Lebanon) .	140,000	260,000
		900,000

abundantly in Asia Minor, Syria, Roumelia, and the islands of the Archipelago. The fine-flavoured tobaccos of Syria and European Turkey are held in high estimation, whilst Asia Minor is the home *par excellence*, of the opium of the Pharmacopœia, and is equally celebrated for its tanning substances, dye-stuffs, and fruits. It is quite impossible to form an exact estimate of the agricultural capabilities of the Turkish Empire, the only certain information we possess being that success has at all times crowned well-directed efforts in new fields of agricultural industry. Notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, however, and the equability and variety of climate with which the country is favoured—in fact, owing probably to the very existence of these blessings—ignorance of husbandry, rudeness of implements, and dislike of innovation are still characteristics of the Turkish farmer. In the majority of cases, besides, he holds his land from middle-men, on uncertain tenure; borrows the money wherewith to defray the cost of cultivation, and surrenders an inordinate proportion of his produce as an equivalent for the *advantage* he enjoys, —a system which naturally results in the enrichment of the proprietor and the impoverishment of the cultivator.

The tenure by which land is held in Turkey is

of a complicated character. The general principle upon which all tenure is based being that the land belongs to God, whose vice-gerent on earth, the Sultan, exercises a deputed authority to administer it for the benefit of the State: the occupiers being simply tenants, either for life or at will. This abstract doctrine as to title has largely influenced the whole of the legislation on the question of land tenure. The Osmanlis divided the lands, which became subject to their rule by right of conquest, into three categories. The first was bestowed upon the church for the support of religion and education; the second upon individuals as recompense for their services in the field; and the third or remaining portion was vested in the State, which was considered the *de facto* owner of the entire freehold. The ecclesiastical tenure or *vacouf* includes all those lands originally appropriated to the use of the state church, as well as land bequeathed to it for pious purposes, and nominally held by it for the benefit of others. Like many other institutions, the tenure of *vacouf*, which, in its origin, was the expression of one of the worthiest sentiments in our nature, has become, in course of time, so overloaded with abuses as to constitute a real grievance both to the State and the community. The *vacoufs*, are free from

taxation, are inalienable, and have been estimated to include three-fourths of the landed property of Turkey. Doubtless, the amount is greatly exaggerated, but the fact is indisputable that an inequitable portion of the land in private hands is enabled, by means of this title, to obtain immunity from state burdens, and even from ordinary legal process; whilst the loss to the government by the *vacouf* administration is as nearly as possible double the income derived from them in every shape. The whole system, as it at present exists, is opposed to public policy, and, notwithstanding the protecting influence of the Ulema, cannot be much longer upheld in its integrity.

"Man hath nothing to expect save from the fruit of his labour." "The husbandman is rewarded by God." So saith the Koran, and the followers of the Prophet, wherever they may be found, are generally tillers of the soil; while the practice of husbandry has always been held in honour. Farming, however, in Turkey partakes more of the character of a pastime than of physical labour. The richness of the soil, and the geniality of the climate, demand from the cultivator a minimum of experience, and do not entail the forethought, practical knowledge, and expense for implements and enriching substances, which

is the inevitable burden of the western agriculturist. The natural advantages enjoyed by Turkey are possessed by very few countries in the world. The ordinary products which form everywhere the great staples of food and manufacture are, as I have already said, raised in abundance, but, in addition, there are few of the rarer and more valuable articles known in commerce that do not find a congenial home in some part of her extensive territory. Some things there are which Turkey alone produces, and which are essential to the industrial populations of the West; whilst there are other other articles in the economic production of which she is competing with nearly every other country in the world possessing a similarity of climate. It may, therefore, be important to take some notice, however brief, of those products which enter more specially into her export trade.

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

GRAIN.—The soil of Turkey has been remarkable for fertility from the earliest times. Mesopotamia was so admirably adapted for the cultivation of corn that it seldom produced less than from two hundred to three hundredfold. "The ear of the wheat as well as the barley," says Herodotus, "is four digits broad, but the immense height to which the cenchrus and sesamum stalks grow, although I have witnessed it myself, I dare not mention, lest those who have not visited the country should disbelieve my report." At the present day, the soil in European Turkey is not less fruitful, for, according to Beaujour, the yield of corn in some parts of Macedonia rarely amounts to less than three hundredfold. There are some places, also, where the land is

so fertile that two crops of grain are obtained from it in the year. At the village of Velvendos, in the district of Charshumba, about eighteen hours from Monastir, barley is sown in September and cut in May. Indian corn is then planted, which is gathered in the September following.

It is impossible to obtain accurate agricultural statistics in Turkey. In 1847, however, the value of the agricultural produce exported from Macedonia, by Salonica alone, amounted to upwards of £800,000, of which cereal productions formed an item of £600,000. In 1848, the quantity of corn exported from Bulgaria and Roumelia exceeded 4,440,000 bushels. In 1855, Galatz and Ibraila exported upwards of 2,000,000 imperial quarters of grain, while the annual produce of corn in Anatolia, in 1858, was estimated at 25,000,000 Turkish kilos., equal to 25,473,250 bushels. In 1860, Turkey exclusive of Egypt, exported wheat, barley, and maize to Great Britain alone, to the value of £3,011,277.

Wool.—Turkey has always been celebrated for the quality of her fleeces, and the original stock (*ovis aries*) from which our sheep are descended, is still found in a wild state on some parts of the mountains of Asia Minor. Thrace produces annually

about six million pounds; Macedonia, Thessaly, and Albania combined, a like quantity; the produce of the Dobrutscha being estimated at about four million pounds. The wools of Anatolia and Upper Asia are highly esteemed, but it is impossible to arrive at even an approximate idea of the weight annually produced—a remark which applies equally to Syria. Roumelian wool usually contains sixty per cent. of white, twenty per cent. of first quality black, and twenty per cent. of second quality grey. The supply of Turkish wool in the English market is by no means steady as regards quantities,—values on the spot ranging, at times, so high as to preclude its purchase. In 1869, Smyrna alone, exported 16,300 bales, valued at £290,000.

Mohair is the fleece of the *Capra angorensis*, a goat which inhabits the plains of Angora and its neighbourhood. The fleece is locally called tiftik, and has a staple averaging five inches in length, of a white colour and a fine silky texture. Angora hair was formerly spun into yarn by the natives and exported in that state, under the general impression that the mechanical structure of the hair rendered it unfit for spinning by machinery. But since the great improvements which have been made, particularly at Bradford, in the spinning and manu-

facture of the article, the hair is now exported in bales, and the manufacture of the yarn has almost ceased to be a local industry. The goats are clipped in April and May, the finest quality being obtained from the female animal; but the fleeces from both sexes are usually mixed for export. In sorting the hair, about seventeen per cent. is thrown out as being too short in the staple for combing, and, with the other refuse, is sold for various purposes of local manufacture. The long hair is extensively used in this country as a mixing material in the production of light fabrics for ladies' dresses, tailors' trimmings, and light clothes for gentleman's Summer wear. It also enters largely into the composition of some descriptions of lace shawls, Utrecht velvet, and a great variety of articles of utility. The annual production at Angora is estimated at three million pounds, but the exports from Turkey, *viâ* Smyrna, Samsoun, and Constantinople, are swelled to about six million pounds by the produce of an inferior quality from other districts in Asia Minor.

Silk.—The rearing of the silkworm and unwinding of the cocoon constitute, at the present time, one of the most important industries of the Ottoman Empire. Adrianople in Roumelia, Volo

in Thessaly, and Broussa in Asia Minor, are all largely engaged in the business; while Mount Lebanon, in Syria, is invested with breeding-sheds and reeling factories. The moth deposits its eggs in midsummer, which are then collected and stored at a low temperature until the following Spring when they are hatched concurrently with the appearance of young foliage on the mulberry trees. In about a month the formation of the cocoon begins, and in three weeks, or perhaps less, the cocoon is finished. The chrysalis is then destroyed by fumigation, and the proprietor is possessed of a marketable article, worth, according to quality, from one to two shillings per pound. The great bulk of Syrian silk is exported to Marseilles; and so large is the demand for this article, wherever it is produced, that the crop is generally secured by anticipation. At the London International Exhibition, Turkey was awarded seven medals for raw silk of superior quality, one medal for silk fabrics, and a like number of "honourable mentions."

Cotton.—In the palmy days of the American trade, before the idea of secession—which found expression in the aphorism, "Cotton is King,"—had taken complete hold of the Southern mind, American cotton, for uniformity of staple and

relative cheapness, was unsurpassed by any other country in the world. So fully, too, was this superiority recognised, that an overwhelming proportion of the machinery employed in the cotton manufacture was specially adapted for the working of American sorts. To cotton produced in the East, a certain dislike was entertained—not without some foundation—the bulk of the imports from India and Egypt being characterised by a feebleness of staple which entailed a greater amount of waste in the process of manufacture than was experienced in the working of the American article. The extraordinary cheapness, besides, of American cotton—resulting from the perfection to which the cultivation of the plant, the cleaning of the wool, and its preparation for export had been brought—precluded all expectation of inducing other countries to bestow that requisite amount of attention and care in its production, which might enable them to enter into successful competition with the United States. The consequence was that millions of human beings, and millions of capital, were practically dependent on the continued prosperity of the Southern States of the North American continent. No sooner, however, was the blockade of the Gulf ports by the executive authority of the

United States an accomplished fact, than the consumers of the staple in the great manufacturing centres of Europe began to look to the East as the only source from which an adequate supply could be drawn for their future wants. Cotton rose rapidly in market value, and nowhere was a more determined attempt made to meet the altered circumstances of the case than in the Ottoman Empire, which—from its proximity to the consumer and known capability of its soil in the successful growth of the plant—possessed manifest advantages over almost every other country.

At the beginning of the present century, when the production of cotton in America was comparatively limited, the exports from Turkey, principally to Italy, France, and Germany, were of a very important character—the annual export of cotton from Smyrna alone being estimated at two hundred thousand bales. The first half of the present century, however, witnessed a marked diminution in the cultivation of cotton in Turkey, owing to the quantity, excellence, and cheapness of the article exported from the Southern States of America; while previous to the outbreak of the civil war in that country, Smyrna sorts had almost disappeared from the

market quotations. Now, on the contrary, cotton is extensively grown in Roumelia—particularly in the district of Sérés—as also in Asia Minor, Syria, and the islands of the Ottoman Archipelago; whilst the production of the staple in Egypt has worked a complete revolution in her agricultural routine. Concurrently with extended growth, the utmost care has been bestowed on the improvement of the staple by introduction of American seed, as well as deep cultivation by means of steam implements; more effective ginning than was formerly practised, and sounder packing for export.

The importance, too, of securing a character for cotton grown in certain districts has given rise to a healthy spirit of emulation among the planters; and it is believed by those best qualified to form an opinion on the subject, that Turkey will now remain as a permanent source of supply. In Egypt alone, there were, in 1866, not less than two hundred steam-ploughs at work in cotton cultivation, and the annual yield, in some instances, was as high as nine hundred pounds of clean cotton per acre. Every modern mechanical aid to production has been made use of, and the result is that, whilst all well-prepared Turkish cotton fetches a good relative price, some de-

scriptions vie with the choicest American sorts. At the London International Exhibition of 1862, the exhibits of cotton were much commended, and four medals were awarded. One to the Governor of Latakia, for a sample grown from Egyptian seed, valued at twelvepence per pound; one to the Governor of Drama, for a sample valued at elevenpence three farthings; one to the Governor of Cavalla, for a sample valued at elevenpence halfpenny; and the fourth to the Governor of Adana, for a fine short staple variety, with good colour and even fibre, valued at tenpence halfpenny. A medal was also awarded to the Pasha of Egypt, for a fine sample from indigenous seed, valued at one shilling and eightpence per pound.

In 1869, a large quantity of cotton seed was sown in the neighbourhood of Smyrna, but the crop on the dry grounds was totally destroyed by the great heat. The yield, however, was about sixty-five thousand pressed bales of 400 lbs. each, thirty-four thousand bales of which, valued at £461,320, were exported: about half for Spain, and the remainder for France and England. At Salonica, the cotton crop, in 1870, was, as regards quantity, below the average, but the quality was good. The yield was estimated at about 22,400,000 lbs.

Tobacco (*nicotiana rustica*) flourishes both in European and Asiatic Turkey. The districts of Cavalla in Macedonia, and Latakia in Syria, are famous for the production of the plant, and these names are generally used in distinguishing between the Syrian and Macedonian varieties. The district of Cavalla comprises the *Liva* of Drama, nearly one-tenth of the arable acreage of which is under tobacco cultivation; and it is stated that there is scarcely a family, in a population of 250,000 souls, which is not more or less dependent on the tobacco industry for a means of livelihood. The tobacco of the Cavalla district is of two distinct sorts—viz., Drama leaf and Yenidgeh leaf. The Drama variety, grown in the western part of the district, is a large stout leaf, strongly narcotic in quality, and dark reddish-brown in colour; the Yenidgeh variety is, on the contrary, a small delicate leaf, mildly narcotic, and of a golden yellow colour. The marked difference between the two varieties would appear to be solely due to the constitution of the soil, as the golden leaf will quickly degenerate into the Drama variety if transported into the western district. The yield per acre varies in different districts, according to the mode of transplanting which is adopted. The Drama leaf is usually planted close, and yields about 800lbs. per acre; whilst the Yenidgeh leaf, which is planted

wide, only yields on an average about 400lbs.; but the conditions are hardly equal, as the Drama leaf attains a length of from seven to ten inches, while six inches is the maximum length of the finest sort. The district of Latakia Proper embraces the whole of the plains and mountain-slopes surrounding the town of that name, which is built on the site of the ancient Laodicea. The plain is watered by the Nahr-el-Thebir, and the district is inhabited by the Ansairiyehs, a peculiar people, numbering not more than one hundred thousand, who from the peculiarity of their doctrine, which seems to be allied to the ancient worship of Adonis, live in social distinction from the other tribes of the province.

The finest quality of Latakia tobacco is called Abu-Richa, or Father of Perfume; Scheik-el-Bent is as nearly as possible equal to the finest; Dgidar including the medium and inferior sorts. The first-named variety is nearly all sent to Egypt, the latter being reserved for exportation to Europe. Latakia leaf has a peculiar smoky flavour, which is much admired by *connoisseurs*, and a curious story is told of the origin of the name Abu-Richa, similar in some respects to that which is related of the world-renowned Lundy-foot snuff. It is stated that the Ansairiyehs, from some

political cause, at one time left the plains and took up their abode in the mountains. They stored the whole of the year's crop of tobacco in their huts, where it was subjected, during the Winter, to the smoke from the wood fuel used by peasants, and this wood, a species of oak (*Quercus ilex*), not only imparted a peculiar flavour to the leaf, but converted the colour from a fine yellow into a dark brown nearly resembling black. When the tobacco subsequently reached Egypt, the flavour was so greatly admired that the name *Father of Perfume* was at once bestowed upon it, and the smoked leaf speedily supplanted the yellow in the Egyptian markets. In the culture of tobacco, patience and watchfulness are virtues not to be lightly disregarded. The seed is raised in beds, and is afterwards transplanted. The sowing takes place in February or March, and, as soon as the young shoots show above the layer of dung with which the bed is covered, they are overlaid with faggots and other stuff of a like character to guard against possible injury from the Spring frosts. Towards the beginning of June the process of transplanting commences, and the harvest begins in July, terminating either in September or the early part of October The leaves ripen from the bottom upwards, and it is owing to this peculiarity that

the period of the harvest is so prolonged. Tobacco is considered by the farmers of Turkey to be the most profitable article which they produce in bulk, the net profit in some parts of Macedonia being calculated at £16 per acre. As a rule, tobacco lands are kept on the plant without intermission of fallow, the tilth being maintained by deep ploughing and abundance of manure, to which the practice of folding sheep and goats on the land previous to transplanting, materially contributes. Turkish tobacco is coming into more general use in this country, and there were six medals awarded at the London International Exhibition for excellence of quality,—the governors of Drama, Latakia, and the Lebanon being numbered among the recipients.

Madder.—The root of the *Rubia tinctorum* is a dyeing material of great importance, extensively grown in France, Holland, Spain, and Italy, on the continent of Europe; in Asia Minor, Syria, and several other localities in the Ottomon dominions; and in British India, as well as other countries in the East. The finest quality of the root, however, is grown in Turkey. The mystery of dyeing Turkey-red was long practised in Asiatic Turkey before its introduction into Europe. With us, the extractive matter is em-

ployed in the production of a variety of colours, from reds to chocolates and blacks; and the investigation of the conditions under which the colouring matter is found in the root, as well as the different methods of utilization, constituted for a long time one of the most difficult problems in organic chemistry. The madder plant is easily propagated from shoots, the roots striking both vertically and laterally; and it should remain in the ground for three years in order to attain its greatest excellence by the formation of woody fibre in the centre of the fleshy tap-roots of the plant.

When the root is dug up and a section examined, it is found that the cellular matter is of a yellowish colour, the red colour supervening as the result of oxidation after a prolonged exposure of the root to atmospheric influences;—not the least of the peculiarities for which the plant is remarkable being the continuous formation of the colouring matter under some conditions of packing, and its degeneration in others. Turkey madder is exported in the root, and so even is the quality that it is generally ground without, or with very little sorting. The cultivation of the plant, owing to its prolific nature, is very profitable, notwithstanding the large outlay

per acre, in tillage and manure, and the unusually lengthened period between planting and fruition. In 1869, Smyrna exported 12,640 bales, valued at £208,340, showing a considerable decrease in comparison to the year 1857, when 117,383 kintals were exported to the value of £301,065. In 1860, Turkey exported 170,947 cwt., valued at £433,856, to Great Britain alone.

Valonia.—This valuable tanning material consists of the acorn-cup of the *Quercus algilops*, which grows abundantly in Asia Minor, European Turkey, and the islands of the Archipelago. The principal market, however, is Smyrna, the valonia exported from thence being of excellent quality, containing from 34 to 37 per cent. of tannin. After the acorns are gathered, they are partially dried and stacked in warehouses, until the scales have lost their contractile power, thereby liberating the acorn. The large quantity of tannin in valonia makes it an article of the first importance in all tanning operations. In 1869, Smyrna exported 35,340 tons, value £560,000.

Yellow Berries.—This dyeing material is the berry of the small buckthorn, or *rhamnus minor;* it is of the size of a pepper-corn, of an astringent, bitter taste, and of a green colour, bordering upon yellow. The shrub was known to the ancients

under the name of *pixacantha*, or prickly box; the French call it *graine d'Avignon.*

Opium, the most valuable of the gum resins, is the inspissated juice of the poppy, which is extensively cultivated in Asia Minor, European Turkey, and Egypt. The opium of Smyrna, however, is most esteemed as it contains a larger per centage of morphia than any other opium known in trade, and it is for that reason used in pharmaceutical processes to the exclusion of other descriptions less rich in the principal alkaloid. Brande states: "The quantity of morphia obtained from opium is variable: the produce is greatest from Turkish opium, and least from the East Indian and Egyptian. The average is generally estimated at an ounce from the pound." In the East, opium is much used as a soporific, or as an incentive. Those persons in Turkey who are in the habit of constantly eating it are called *Theriakis.* They take it in order to procure a kind of sweet lethargy, which seems to place them between life and death. That state, which lulls all thought asleep without excluding the sensations, has such charms that it is not uncommon to meet with *Theriakis* who spend their life in drinking coffee, smoking their pipe, and swallowing opium. I have heard of a man who took

every day thirty cups of coffee, smoked sixty pipes, swallowed three drachms of opium, and whose sole food was four ounces of rice. In 1869, Smyrna exported 2,980 cases of opium, value £675,800.

Dried Fruits form a considerable item in the exports from Turkey. Smyrna is celebrated for the quality of its figs, raisins, &c., and, in 1869, exported 9,650 tons, value £298,320.

The other principal exports from Turkey are: —Bones; Boxwood; Carpets; Drugs; Emery stones; Gums; Galls; Liquorice; Leeches; Nuts; Olive oil; Otto of roses; Sponges; Scammony; Skins; Seed:—flax, linseed, millet and rape; Tallow; &c.

CHAPTER VI.

FISHERIES.

THERE is no branch of a country's resources which is so liable to be disregarded as its fisheries; and that even in densely populated States, where the importance of fish as an article of food is more or less fully recognized. In Turkey, while the river fisheries are subjected to a close surveillance, the deep sea fisheries are greatly neglected, and the rental which they yield is quite disproportionate to their value. Efforts are, however, being made to remedy this state of things, so far as the open waters are concerned; and if a uniform mode of collecting the duties were introduced over the whole of the empire, the consumption of fish would be largely increased. An *ad valorem* duty of twenty per cent. on fish is just one of those imposts which opens a door to a great deal of fraud and hardship. The best

mode of collecting a revenue from this source would be, not from the fish, but from the waters; care being taken to prevent the whole of the waters in a province from coming under the control of a single individual, so as to avoid, as much as possible, the vicious system of subletting, which is a characteristic feature of all monopolies. The income derived from the rental of the waters might be supplemented by a license to fish, which every person exercising the vocation should be compelled to apply for annually to the Government. If such licenses were granted at a moderate price, an increasing income would be secured, while the authorities could exercise a direct supervision that would prevent practices likely to injure the spawning beds, or interfere with the regular supply.

There is hardly any industry in Turkey so promising and yet so undeveloped as the fisheries of the Black Sea. Leaving the Russian coast and the Danube out of the question, there is sufficient profitable occupation for a large fishing population on the Ottoman sea-board, between that river and the mouth of the Bosphorus. Between these two points the sea abounds in fish of all kinds, many of which are to be found at every season of the year, although others are

only periodical visitors. Of these, the only ones caught in any quantity are a few of the migratory fish, but the permanent kinds, such as the *kalkan* —a species of turbot—the plaice, sole, and gurnet, are allowed to remain unmolested. The appliances used for fishing are few in number, and rude in character. The fish, passing up and down the coast at particular times, are attacked by *talians*—a kind of stake-net—and by floating nets of various descriptions; but the permanent occupants of the sea are only caught by hand-lines or in nets intended for the others. If the fish-markets of these districts were overstocked, such neglect could be readily understood; but there is a much greater demand for this important article of food than can be met at present. It is a rare thing to find good fresh fish exposed for sale, although salt fish is consumed in large quantities, a notable proportion of which is imported from the neighbouring countries. Between the Bosphorus and Iniada, there are two fishing villages; here and there may be a few *talians* worked by men from the Bosphorus, or from the Bay of Burgas. Beyond Iniada there is the village of Missevrea, the only place on the whole line of coast, from the Bosphorus to Burgas, where fishing is carried on to any

extent. The rich inhabitants of this town carry on fishing upon a larger and more profitable scale than the poor hand-line or floating net fishermen of Varna, Achiola, or Iniada. Besides this meagre fishing population, the district affords employment to the Cossacks of Anatolia, who immigrate there for three or four months of every year, and fish in the numerous fresh water lakes found near the coast, but who rarely attempt sea-fishing.

To give some idea of the fecundity of these waters, it will be sufficient to mention that over 4,000 fish have been caught by one man in a single night with a common casting net. With the same appliance, a haul of two or three hundred mullet is not at all uncommon with a good fisherman. The present methods of fishing are, however, quite inadequate to the necessities of these seas. Deep sea fishing is entirely unknown, the fishermen never venturing into water deeper than three or four fathoms. The most profitable method of fishing is that carried on by means of the *talian* net, which requires a regular establishment, and the expenditure of some capital. The *talian* net is twenty or sometimes thirty fathoms long, reaching to the bottom, and rising a few inches above the surface of the water. It is fixed in its place by the aid of poles or masts

held perpendicularly in the sea by heavy weights, attached to their lower extremities, and by lines attached to anchors. The net is fastened to these poles, and being weighted at the bottom, literally cuts off a portion of the sea. The *talian* extends in a straight line from some projecting cape where the passing fish comes close into the shore; it then turns round like the ordinary stake net, and forms a sort of chamber into which the fish are driven by following the net, and out of which they cannot escape.

As there are no tides in the Black Sea, the fish cannot be left high and dry at low water. A rather ingenious contrivance is, therefore, had recourse to. A net is allowed to sink to the bottom of the enclosure, and, when full of fish, a large barque comes alongside and hauls it in, the fish being thus emptied into the boat. These fisheries are worked by a gang of fishermen, generally twelve in number, and under the direction of a *talian baschy*, who is generally selected by the fishermen themselves. Two or three small boats and a barge are indispensable to work the *talian*, but the nets, boats, and other appliances rarely, if ever, belong to the fishermen. A salt-fish merchant—most probably a *tchorbadjie* of Missevrea—buys the *talian* nets,

boats, and tackle, and arranges with the fishermen, who receive a portion of the fish caught, or a share in the profits, which are divided in the following proportions: half, two-thirds, or even three-fourths to the furnisher of the nets and tackle, and the rest to the working fishermen. Such nets, of course, cannot remain in the sea during rough weather, as if the sea rises rapidly and the nets are removed hurriedly, they are torn by the breakers, and often totally destroyed. A *talian* net costs, on an average, £300 or £400, and would, therefore, not be risked in the sea, if the profits were not very great; but this method of fishing is very precarious, as the weather is often rough during the passage of the fish, and the *talian*, consequently, cannot work.

Although large quantities of fish are caught with the *talian*, floating nets, resembling herring nets, and boats that could keep out to sea in pretty rough weather, would be much safer for making great hauls of the mackerel abounding in the Black Sea. This fish bears two different names—being called *skumbru* when descending from the Russian coast, or from the Sea of Azof, and *tchiross* when it passes upwards from the Bosphorus. The other fishes of passage are the

Karageaz, or Black Sea herring, and the *staorid*, a species of *benito* mackerel,—all of which salt easily and keep well. The fishermen of the coast say that deep-sea fishing would be impossible. The experiment, however, has been tried with a net two fathoms long, and half a fathom deep, in a heavy swell which would have prevented any *talian* being placed; and 3,000 mackerel were caught in one day. With three or four nets of the same size, over 100,000 fish could have been taken, as the time that the net was out of the water, and being cleared of the fish, was so much lost. The fish continued passing for several hours in a dense mass, and the net was filled in a few seconds, whilst it took nearly half an hour to empty it. If several large fishing craft dropped their nets in quick succession, and handed them full to other boats, where picking and salting were at work, innumerable quantities of passing fish could be taken. They might then follow up the shoals of passing fish, which a *talian*, being stationary, cannot do.

Next to the *talian*, come *sein* nets, which are of very large dimensions. They are used for all kinds of fish, even for anchovies, and a species of sardines very common in the Bosphorus and along the shores of the Black Sea. Small *seins*

are sometimes seen along the coast; but, being drawn by men wading in the sea, they rarely do any execution. One kind, called *Kara geaz avlary*, or herring nets, is used to catch this exceedingly delicate fish, as well as small mullet; but floating nets are never used at sea for mackerel or *staorid balyk*, although the experiment I have mentioned succeeded admirably. The fishermen of Varna and Kustendjie catch the *kalkan*, or Black Sea turbot, in floating nets made with large meshes; but these nets are very expensive and inefficient, as the mesh must exactly fit the fish, or otherwise it gets through, or hits the net and retires. Trawl fishing is perfectly unknown, although it is the only way of catching the flat fish that abound in the Black Sea. The innumerable shoals of mullet that pass up and down the coast are usually attacked with mats, which, although a seemingly improbable way of catching fish, is nevertheless a very killing mode of fishing. Some twenty or thirty reed mats, of about six feet long and four broad, are attached together; and the borders of the mats are turned up, so as to form a border all round about six inches high. These mats are then launched, and slowly towed out to sea by boats, so as to form a sort of crescent, stretching from the shore out to the boats; but this mode

of fishing is only successful on very dark and quiet nights, as the slightest swell will overturn the mats. Any mullet which finds itself within the semicircle attempts to leap over what the fish take for a net, and thus falls upon the mat. As soon, therefore, as the fishermen perceive that a large shoal is enclosed, the boats pull rapidly to the shore, and the fish, trying to escape, jump into the mats. Mullet, however, are often so abundant that the mats sink and the fish escape. Line fishing, too, is little practised. Some small hand-lines, made of horse hair and a couple of fathoms in length, are used to catch small fish, and even mackerel, but anything in the shape of a "troll" is quite unknown.

The Black Sea fishing is far from being worked with proper tackle, although skilful fishermen could make large profits if backed by sufficient capital to provide suitable fishing craft. If a Black Sea Fishing Company were formed that could provide practical hands, good seaworthy boats and proper tackle, there is no doubt such a company would clear cent. per cent. as a minimum of profit.

CHAPTER VII.

MINES.

THE actual statistics relative to the mineral resources of Turkey are very limited, although the mineral wealth of the empire is known to be great and varied. The mines of Roumelia and Asia Minor are famed in history for their richness, and, although their prosperity declined with the civilization to the necessities of which they ministered, the strata where the ores lie imbedded still remain, and only await the advent of steam, skill, and capital to furnish tangible proof of their undoubted value. Pliny tells us that, in his time, the riches of ancient Cyprus arose, to a considerable extent, from its copper mines, the most productive of which were those of Tamasus, in the centre of the island; Soli, on the north coast; and Amathos and Cyrium, on the south. Gold and silver were found in these mines, while the

precious stones of Cyprus—the emerald, agate, malachite, jasper, opal—and the minerals, asbestos and rock-crystal, were held in high estimation by the luxurious Romans. Mount Atabyros in Rhodes, and the island of Lemnos—the fabled abode of Vulcan—were famous for their copper mines. The mountains of Thrace were remarkable for their mines of precious metals. The island of Thassos was enriched by the possession of her gold mines; and the forests of Mount Ida, in Crete, supplied wood for the forging and smelting of iron. The ancient Greeks and Romans, however, with all their power and grandeur, could not buy up the future, and were compelled to leave the soil, with all its hidden treasure, to the descendants of those who followed the fortunes of the son of Amurath.

At the present time, silver and lead are extensively found both in the European and Asiatic divisions of the Empire; gold is not an uncommon product of the mines of Thessaly, while the islands of the Ottoman Archipelago, once noted for the rarity and value of their gems, form so many reserves of mineral treasure. The Taurus range is celebrated for the richness and abundance of its copper. Coal is found in the mountain ranges of Roumelia, as well as in the districts

of Asia Minor forming the southern coast of the Black Sea. It is, however, quite impossible to estimate the extent of the coal measures in Asia Minor. The only coal-field of which we have any definite information is in the neighbourhood of Heraclia. In this district, the mineral crops out on the surface, and the seams, which vary in thickness from three to eighteen feet, have been inexpensively worked by adits into the side of the mountain; but, through unskilful working, they do not give, either in quantity or quality, a tenth part of what they are capable. The best coal has, hitherto, been procured from the valley of Kosloo, which is in immediate vicinity to the coast, and most eligibly situated for coaling vessels from shoots, without any intermediate boat carriage. The Kosloo could, without any extraordinary effort, yield about thirty thousand tons of coal per annum, and of a quality equal to the very best Newcastle, having a loss of only seven per cent. in clinker and ashes.

In the valley of Soungoul, which adjoins Kosloo, the coal seams are from nine to twelve feet in thickness, and the coal itself is quite equal in quality to, and much harder than the Kosloo. In fact, the whole of the Soungoul valley contains excellent coal, which might be shipped in

the same way as Kosloo, without the necessity of boating off. This important coal district, chiefly the property of the Sultan and Validé Sultana, is situated about 130 miles from the entrance to the Bosphorus, and is in every respect most eligibly placed for water transport; but the unhealthiness of the place, arising from malaria generated by undrained lands, is a serious drawback to continuous operations. The coal at Kosloo is brought to grass at about six shillings per ton, but, being rather soft in grain, is much deteriorated in quality when it reaches market, owing to the clumsy and unworkmanlike manner in which it is manipulated by the natives, who alone are available for the work. In forming an opinion, however, as to the value of Heraclia coal, it is necessary to remember the surface character of the mineral, and the mixture of inferior with superior sorts inseparable from an extensive employment of unskilled labour. The coal is easy to win, and is large and merchantable. In depth, the quality will without doubt improve, while if steam colliers were employed in its transport, instead of the small sailing craft now in use, a marked difference would soon be observable in the size and general appearance of the coal when delivered for consumption. This

splendid property will, probably, however, remain unproductive to the Government until foreign enterprise is invited to do that, for the accomplishment of which the capital and industry of the country itself is inadequate.

The metalliferous minerals in the European and Asiatic provinces of the Empire are also comparatively unworked. The lead and silver mines on the slopes of Mount Pelion are, perhaps, the richest of their class yet discovered west of the Bosphorus. In 1848, the Sultan made a concession of the entire district to Izett Pasha, then Minister of Police, for a term of eleven years; but after an experiment of three years it was given up as unsuccessful. Subsequently, however, in 1856, the privileges granted in the first firman were extended by a fresh concession to a period of thirty-one years. The grant comprised the whole of Thessaly and parts of Lower Albania and Macedonia, with seaboards on the Adriatic and Archipelago. Over all this wide extent, embracing about three hundred miles of sea-coast, the concessionnaire had the sole privilege of working the metals at the nominal royalty to Government of seventy thousand piastres a year. The proprietor of this valuable concession is said to have ex-

pended £50,000 in works for smelting and refining; but in 1858 his resources failed him, and, discouraged by difficulties, for which the project itself was in no way to blame, he abandoned the scheme, and, until very lately, this magnificent field of mineral enterprise remained altogether neglected. Recently, however, the works have fallen into fresh hands, and are now carried on well and profitably. The galena ores in the neighbourhood are very rich, yielding not less than thirty-five per cent. of mixed metal—lead, silver, and gold; while in 1858, with indifferent working, it was calculated that from a very small portion of Mount Pelion the value of the metals produced amounted to £300 a day.

Next in value to these mines may be reckoned the rich veins of iron, copper, and lead at Samakov, Voinitza, and Stari-madén in Bosnia, in which ores of a high average purity abound; but all are nearly profitless from the primitive rudeness with which the mining and smelting is carried on. At Karatova, again, near Sofia, argentiferous lead abounds in a hard porphyry formation, which yields a large proportion of the more valuable metal, but, for similar reasons, scarcely repays the labour of quarrying. Lead and copper are also found at Samokovjik, near

Varna, and at Kurschumlih, in the neighbourhood of Pristina; but at both, want of skill, capital, and enterprise is attended by the same negative results. In the Archipelago, Lemnos, Cyprus, and other islands are rich in copper, but little or nothing whatever is being done to utilize their teeming wealth.

It is, however, in Asia that the mineral treasures of the Empire are most lavishly distributed. No less than eighty-two mines of various ores have been discovered, and were formerly worked with good remunerative results. But of this number, few are now in operation; and of these, not one is worked to the full limits of its capacity. Five silver mines, one of lead, and four of copper are at present worked by the Government —the first only producing about 570,000 okes, the second 175,000, and the third 965,000. Of the mines worked by private persons, those of Eléon, near Trebizond, yield 250,000 okes of copper, and those of Tokat, 300,000. In the year 1862, more than 440,000 kilos of copper, valued at about 1,000,000 francs, were shipped to France.

The copper mines of Bakyrkurchai, which, in the time of Mahmoud II., enabled Ismail Bey, the then Turcoman chief of Sinope, to pay a yearly tribute of 200,000 ducats, are

now completely neglected. The mines of Tireboli, which formerly, under very bad management, yielded from 150 to 200 tons of copper annually, are now practically unproductive, though possessing every advantage of situation and abundant fuel that mining enterprise could require. The silver mines of Gumush-Khaneh, near Trebizond, once the most famous of all the silver mines in Asia, are now also nearly forsaken, their annual net produce seldom averaging more than 90 lbs. The only mine in Asia anything like a success is the well-known Argana-Madén, which produces nearly 400 tons of copper annually. The average ores in this mine contain 12 to 15 per cent. of pure metal, and the profits, under good management, ought to be considerable. The mines of Balgar-Dagh, on the slopes of the Taurus, are also exceedingly rich; the ores containing 21 per cent. of lead, giving 428 grammes of silver and four of gold per 100 kilogrammes. The yield at present is trifling, but the mines are capable, under improved management and with good machinery, of producing 12,000 tons annually, while the cost of extraction is estimated at only 30 francs 50 cents. per ton. Argentiferous galena exists also in great plenty at Akdagh-Madén, in the district of Tokat; but

though the veins crop up in the very midst of forests, and labour is cheap and abundant, little of the ore is at present utilised.

On the slope of the Ishik-Dagh, in the pashalic of Angora, similar wealth invites enterprise; as also again at Desek-Madén, in the same province, within ten miles of the navigable river Kissil-Irmak. At Eléhen, too, some twenty miles south of Tireboli, large deposits of copper ore are known to exist, but no effort has been made to turn the discovery to account; while at the silver mines of Esseli, Kuré-Madén, and Helveli, the method of working is so defective that the resultant yield for the whole is only a yearly total of some 250 tons.

The Turkish Government, however, is now directing attention to the means of rendering this dormant wealth productive, by improved means of transport, a reform in the system of mining concessions, and the training of a body of skilful mining engineers. The supposition that Turkey can ever hope to become a manufacturing country will doubtless be received with incredulity; but where such unbounded natural riches exist, a way and means will, sooner or later, be found for their utilization. The spinning-jenny and the power-loom have already reached the shores of India,

and, although the Anglo-Saxon element is not so prominent in Turkey as in that distant possession of the British Crown, I yet believe the time may not be far distant when the flames of the blast-furnace will illuminate the spurs of the Anti-Taurus, and Turkey, starting on a new course, under the vigilant care of her modern statesmen, will once more send the products of her skill into the marts of the world.

CHAPTER VIII.

PETROLEUM.

THE astounding results, both financial and material, which have accrued from the discovery of petroleum in the United States of America and in Canada, are too well known to need recapitulation. Instead, however, of being confined, as was at first supposed, to a single district, it has been now demonstrated that petroleum exists in so large an area as to justify the belief that no country in the world is destitute of this valuable product. In America, the trade has assumed gigantic proportions. The first export of this article was in May, 1860, when 10,000 gallons were sent to Antwerp. The total export in that year was 1,500,000 gallons, which, in 1868, increased to 99,281,000 gallons, and in 1870, to 141,208,155 gallons.

In England, Germany, Italy, the islands of the

Ottoman Archipelago, and Syria, earth oil has either been found in abundance or is known to exist; and, in all probability, it will be discovered in Russia, Persia, India, and China. But there is no country in the Old World which has been so plainly proved to be a land flowing with petroleum as the United Principalities of Roumania. Over the whole of the Carpathians it oozes through the soil, and pollutes the water-springs. Associated capital has been brought to bear on its extraction and export; but, strange enough, the mechanical appliances by which success has been achieved in other countries have only recently been introduced into Wallachia. Ignoring the experience of others, the Roumanian petroleum companies have been content to adopt the primitive mode of collection in use with the peasantry, by making excavations in the earth, into which the oil, saturating the strata, flows. By this means, large quantities of petroleum have been obtained; but the continued necessity for making fresh holes or wells, with risk of the surrounding land turning out to be unproductive, not being conducive to profitable commercial working on a large scale, attention is now directed almost exclusively to deep boring, with every prospect of success.

The value of petroleum cannot well be over-estimated, as the demand for the article is constantly increasing, while the knowledge of its uses is daily extending. Burning spirit and lubricating oil have heretofore been the principal products of distillation, but a new use seems likely to be found for crude petroleum as a steam fuel. In America, it has supplanted coal in some manufacturing establishments, while the Governments, both of the United States and Great Britain, have been experimenting with the view of determining its relative superiority over coal in vessels of war. The results of the trials, with a specially-constructed furnace and a porous vehicle for the oil, are said to be very satisfactory: one pound of oil evaporating thirteen pounds of water, with a gain of something like 40 per cent. in the power of the engine.

The advantages claimed for petroleum as a steam fuel are cheapness as a generator, economy of space for storage, and greater simplicity in the arrangement of the furnace. It is needless to say that everyone of these propositions is combated by some scientific man on theoretical grounds; but even assuming that the experiments have proved as satisfactory as is stated, it does not necessarily follow that petroleum

could supersede coal in a country where the latter mineral is plentiful and the former article scarce. In a country like Turkey, however, where the coal measures are undeveloped, and steam fuel has to be imported, the value of a large supply of native petroleum is of the highest possible kind.

There are about 7,000 flour-mills in Roumania, only thirty of which are worked by steam, the remainder being worked by water, wind, horses, and oxen. There are also 1,687 distilleries, 608 saw-mills, only a few of which are worked by steam; seventy-two breweries, 145 soap and candle manufactories, besides oil-mills, &c., most of which require power in the different manufacturing processes. To such a country, the possession of an abundant supply of petroleum is obviously of the greatest importance, and the increase of wealth which would result from the substitution of steam for water and wind as motors in Roumania, would be difficult to calculate. The advantages claimed for water as a motor are, in most cases, more apparent than real. The situations are few where a steady supply of water can be relied upon during the whole year, undisturbed by either floods or droughts, and they are fewer still where an ex-

traordinary run of water can be carried off without interfering with the driving machinery. If, therefore, the uncertainty of being able to work —through the operation of the two causes named —be considered, and the average expense of sustaining the banks of streams, and maintaining the walls of reservoirs and sluices be taken into account, in comparison with cheap steam which can be generated at will, there cannot be a doubt that steam, if judged by the necessities of modern trade, is the more economical of the two. The subject is not unworthy the attention of English capitalists, and deserves the best consideration of the scientific officers of the Porte.

CHAPTER IX.

ROADS.

ON the 12th of November last, an important letter was addressed by order of the Sultan to the Grand Vizier, on the subject of improved road and river communications in the interior, as subsidiary to railway transport in both the European and Asiatic provinces of the Empire.* The

* The following is the text of the letter, dated November 12th, 1871, and addressed by order of the Sultan to the Grand Vizier, on the subject of opening up improved road and river communications in the interior of the Empire :—"The object which our August Master the Sultan has constantly in view, and to which his efforts incessantly tend, is to ensure the prosperity of his Empire and develop its wealth by giving all necessary impulse to its commerce and industry.

"If it be incontestable that the country, in virtue of its resources, lends itself specially to the realisation of many useful enterprises, it is equally manifest that the multiplication of means of communication can alone contribute to the extension of commerce and the augmentation of national riches, by facilitating

reform, if carried out with anything like the completeness indicated by His Majesty, will be of incalculable benefit to the country, and it is particularly satisfactory to know that the Sultan himself is alive to the importance of rendering the existing means of water-carriage available. These abound both in Roumelia and Anatolia, and, at but a comparatively trifling expense, a

the transport and exchange of the growth of the soil and the products of industrial energy and skill.

"Our August Master therefore orders that while all efforts shall be made to complete and extend the existing railways in Roumelia and Anatolia, and construct others where necessary, immediate attention shall also be paid to the improvement of river communication throughout the Empire; that a sufficient number of suitable steamers shall be procured as soon as possible to establish a transport service on such rivers as shall be found to be navigable by competent engineers; and that with a view of increasing means of communication in every practicable way the necessary steps be taken to bring the railways into connection with the rivers used for transport.

"His Majesty wishes to see, at the same time, as great a reduction as may be, effected in the cost price of the industrial products of Turkey, so as to facilitate the purchase and export which their good qualities will command, and for this purpose desires that capital may in all suitable cases be advanced to our manufacturers and merchants, in order that no encouragement shall be withheld from the different branches of commerce and industry in the Empire.

"These being the orders of our August Master, your Highness will be pleased to act in pursuance of them."

whole network of such water-ways might be rendered navigable on both sides of the Bosphorus; thus opening up vast districts full of mineral and agricultural wealth, now valueless for want of access to a market. To carry out the reform, however, on a scale commensurate with its importance, foreign capital will be essential; and with this, the Maritza, the Sarabat, the Orontes, and a score of other rivers in Roumelia, Asia Minor, and Syria, might, in little more than a twelvemonth, be cleared from the snags and sandbanks which now render them useless for transport, and float down such wealth of produce to the sea as would enrich the population, the Government, and all concerned in this development of the country's splendid resources.

It is hardly possible to point to an instance in which the injury caused by defective appliances for the transport of merchandise exceeds that from which Turkey is at present suffering. In its effects, the state of the transit has the same tendency as the inland and export duties, in narrowing the circle of the country's productive capabilities. Hence, wheat and other commodities, which might, under more favourable circumstances, be brought down to the ports, have in

some places, a mere local value. Instances are numerous where the population have been in a state of comparative famine in one part of the country from scarcity of breadstuffs, while in others, wheat, &c., might be purchased at nearly nominal prices. In two particular cases it has been estimated that to bring grain down thirty-six and one hundred and fifty miles, the average cost of transport is respectively 4*s*. and 16*s*. per quarter, whereas, over good roads, this sum might be reduced to 1*s*. and 4*s*. a quarter; the difference being upwards of 13 and 112 per cent. on the farmer's gross receipts. In dealing, however, with the means of transport and communication in Turkey, a grave error has been committed by railway *concessionnaires*, who have misled the public by apparently splendid schemes, and induced capitalists to embark their money in enterprises which carry with them the seeds of their own failure.

It is fatal to such undertakings to judge them by the standard of results in England and other equally advanced countries. The scale of such works is far too much in advance of the state of agricultural development in Turkey; whereas a good system of well-constructed tramroads would at once induce an immense increase of traffic,

and would not require the costly skilled labour necessary in combination with the ordinary railway system. Such roads have already been introduced in many of the agricultural districts of France, and the small cost of their construction and maintenance is a strong argument in their favour. In fact, the adoption of such a system of roads and tramways, as I suggest, must precede any further great increase of Turkish trade; and, as the safety of investments depends upon the power of the debtor to pay, it is obvious that any means which can tend to augment that power on the part of the Porte must operate as an additional guarantee for the faithful observance of its obligations.

The comparative state of isolation in which, for want of good roads, Turkey continues to exist, is one of the strangest political and social anomalies that can well be imagined. Constantinople itself is absolutely cut off from all efficient land-communication with the rest of Europe, while the other principal ports in Roumelia, such as Gallipoli, Salonica, Volo, and Rodosto, have no means of communication with the interior worthy of the name. A good road starting from Gallipoli, and running through the districts of Bulair and Ibridgé to Keshan, thence

by Ipsala and Demotika to Adrianople, would open up some wonderfully fertile districts, and afford easy access to a capital port of shipment. The annual loss of grain from the wreck of rafts on the Maritza, between Adrianople and Enos, would go a long way towards paying interest on the cost of constructing such a road.

The anchorage at Enos is two miles in the offing, and the labour of shipping a quantity of grain under such conditions may be easily imagined; whereas, with a carriage road or tramway to Gallipoli, the whole of the produce, or nearly so, which at present finds outlet at Enos, Saros, and Rodosto, would be taken to Gallipoli. From Keshan to Gallipoli is thirty-six miles; for this short distance the carriage of grain is 5*s.* per quarter, whereas to Rodosto in the east, and the Gulf of Saros on the west, it is only 3*s.* 6*d.* to the first, and 2*s.* to the second. Ibridgé, on the Gulf of Saros, cannot be called a port at all, while Rodosto is an open roadstead, far from safe in the winter season; and its freights, moreover, range considerably higher than at Gallipoli. Thus, for the want of a good road from Adrianople to Gallipoli, every interest is injuriously affected—from the member of Lloyd's, who writes a line on a policy of in-

surance, to the farmer who threshes out his grain in the Roumelian valleys.

Salonica, although the principal port in Macedonia, has, with the exception of the road which skirts the north-western shore of the gulf, no effective means of transit whatever with the interior. Monastir is connected with the port of Durazzo, in the Adriatic, by means of a road that runs through Albania by Ochrida and El-bassan; but Salonica, which is the great outlet for the produce of Serés, and Drama, and other well-known centres of production, is left much in the same condition as it was a century, or three centuries ago. The produce of Serés and Drama has to be dragged across the Peninsula to Salonica, while, between that place and Monastir, it is perfectly marvellous how the people manage to effect the transport of large quantities of grain, cotton, silk, and other articles of commerce. The fact is that, from Menlik and Drama on the east, to Monastir and Astrova on the west, there is not a single track which, by its directness, is of the slightest value, and, as a consequence, three-fourths of Macedonia—the garden of Roumelia—remain comparatively uncultivated.

Thessaly, considering its area, is better supplied with the means of internal transit than

Macedonia. The coast road, which passes through Salonica, continues in a southerly direction through Calerina, Stan-Dia, Plata Monos, and Yan to Larissa, whence two roads run close to each other southward into Greece—one of them passing through Pharsala, while another road branches due west to Tricula, after which it assumes a northerly direction until it reaches Metzovo, and then bends southwards into Epirus, or Southern Albania. By this arrangement, however, the whole of the Valley of the Epideno—a tributary of the Salampria—the entire northern half of Thessaly, as well as the south-eastern corner, in which is situated Volo, the port of the province, are left destitute of even the ordinary tracks which are dignified by the name of roads. Larissa, Pharsala, and Tricula are all important inland places, and of all the public works of which Thessaly stands in need, the most urgent is a good road from Larissa to Volo, over which the produce of the interior could pass for shipment.

Bosnia, one of the most primitive components of the Ottoman Empire, is entirely dependent on neighbouring provinces for outlet in the sea. Its trade is principally with Austria, the Sclavonic provinces of which constitute its northern bound-

ary. A branch from the great northern road of Roumelia enters Bosnia near Novi Bazar, where it is joined by a road from Tater Bazargick and Monastir. The Albanian road effects a junction with that from Novi Bazar at Sienitza, proceeding thence in a northerly direction to Bosnia-Serai, from which place it radiates to the Croatian, Sclavonian, and Servian frontiers. In this remote province, the Government is making most praiseworthy efforts in the construction of roads, without which it is found impossible to transport the produce of the interior to the frontiers. In its present state, however, Bosnia might dispense with additional roads if there were a good canal, which, traversing the country from Priepol on the south, might debouch into the Save on the north, with lateral branches from the Drina to the Bosna.

Albania and Bulgaria, for similarity of contour, geographical position, and physical characteristics, may be described as the supporting walls of Turkey in Europe. Albania possesses a sea-board on the Adriatic, extending over three degrees of latitude, and carries on a considerable export trade. The towns of Scutari, Alessio, El-Bassan, Berat, Avlona, Janina, and Arta, are connected by a road which, starting at Scutari, traverses

the whole coast line of Albania, and passes into Greece round the head of the Gulf of Arta. Southern Albania, or Epirus, is tolerably well intersected by roads, but the whole of Middle and Northern Albania, from the line of the Drina, is destitute of roads, with the exception of that which passes through El-Bassan from Monastir to Durazzo, and the two subsidiary routes from Gortza to Berat, and from Prisrend to Scutari. The ports are Prevesa, Sayada, Avlona, Durazzo, and Antivari, but there are a number of smaller places, such as Gomenitza, and Santi Quaranti, scattered up and down the coast. Scutari and Durazzo are, however, the two principal outlets for the produce of Northern Albania, although the bad state of the roads, to a great extent, hinders agricultural operations. Avlona is the port of Middle Albania, and to it the bulk of the produce of the fertile district, of which Berat is the capital, as well as a considerable proportion of the merchandise of Northern Epirus, is brought for shipment. The distance from Berat to Avlona is only forty-five miles, yet such is the character of the roads that everything has to be carried on horseback, the journey occupying from three to four days in Winter, always supposing that the

river Viossa can be safely crossed. A horse-load is two hundred weight, and the rates from Avlona to Berat vary from sixteen piastres in Summer to sixty piastres in Winter. There is nothing, however, to prevent the construction of a tram-road from Berat to Avlona, the country being level for the whole distance, and, as Brindisi on the Italian coast is *vis-à-vis* to Avlona, the trade of Albania would, by such means, be enormously increased.

The means of internal communication in Asia Minor are even more defective than in the European portion of the Empire. Northern Anatolia has a practical monopoly of the transit trade with Persia, through the ports of Trebizond and Batoum, but although this trade yields an important revenue, and notwithstanding that the country, if even partially cultivated, would largely increase the income from the tithe, there was not until very recently a good road from Trebizond to Erzeroum over which produce could be safely transported through the Winter months. There is a road which enters Kars from Russia, passes through to Erzeroum, and, dividing thence, branches north to Trebizond, and, in a westerly direction, to Tokat; but these are, at best,

mere bridle-tracks, carried sometimes through swamps, and sometimes over mountain summits.

The valleys of the Tcharaki and Raibut are all that could be desired, and, at intervals not far removed, there are depressions in the mountain chains through which roads could be carried without involving the necessity of works of an expensive character. For many years past, the Porte had the necessity of a road from Trebizond to Erzeroum forced on its attention, but, although orders were repeatedly issued to the provincial authorities to hasten the work, it for a long time remained unfinished. For the Persian trade, however, it it questionable whether the route from Batoum to Kars, and thence by Erivan to Tabreez, be not preferable to that by Trebizond, Erzeroum, and Bayazid to the frontier. The route by the latter town and Kars is, if anything, the nearest; while, if a road were made from Bayazid, it would have the advantage which the Erzeroum route now enjoys, namely, direct transit over the Turco-Persian frontier.

If Turkey, therefore, does not look to it, the transit trade may, in time, pass from her hands into those of Russia, and when once the course of trade is altered, attempts at its recall will be

vain. Persia is a neighbour in whose good opinion Russia wishes to stand well. The merchants of Tabreez and Teheran, too, are showing signs of awakening energy, and, to them, the journey to Europe is no longer an insurmountable obstacle in the pursuit of gain. The time is rapidly passing away when even the caftan'd dealer in a Persian bazaar can afford to ignore the advantages of cheap and rapid transit for his wares. Politically, Persia has less to fear from Turkey than from Russia; but so urgent are the requirements of modern trade, that were the latter power to offer greater transit facilities than Turkey, the merchants of Trebizond and Erzeroum might soon find that their trade and their profits had departed.

The Trebizond road, however, being now completed, the Persian trade must, necessarily, for long years to come remain in possession of Turkey. This road was begun in 1852 by Ismail Pasha, but, with the exception of two or three kilometres outside Trebizond, the project remained in abeyance until 1864. The small piece made in 1852, together with the repair of the old road as far as Khosh-oghlan, a town two hours from Trebizond, cost the Government no less than ten millions of piastres, a sum that

frightened them out of completing the work. In 1864, however, they took heart of grace, and a body of European engineers was despatched to survey the route and re-commence the works. From 1864 to 1868, a length of twenty kilometres was finished, and about three hundred and fifty more surveyed. The estimate for the completion of the road was fixed at seventy millions of piastres. The Government, however, thought the sum too high, and the engineers were recalled. About this time, Mustapha Pasha, *Mushir* of the 4th Army Corps (Anatolia), being at Constantinople, undertook the construction of the road on the *corvée* system within four years, for the sum of ten millions of piastres. The conditions were accepted, and the Pasha started for Trebizond and immediately commenced operations. He divided the road into two parts; one from Trebizond to Vavouk Dagh, the other thence to Erzeroum. The first portion of the work was directed by Mustapha Effendi, a captain of Engineers, and the second by Hakki Bey, Staff Lieutenant-Colonel, who chose as his lieutenant M. Bechara a Beyroutin, all of whom deserve great credit for the part they took in the work.*

* In the *Levant Herald* of 17th January last, a European

In that portion of Asia Minor, from which the great bulk of the exported produce is drawn—and of which Samsoun on the Black Sea, and Smyrna on the Mediterranean, are the principal

Engineer, who recently made the journey from Erzeroum to the coast, communicates the following interesting particulars as to the real condition of this famous road, relative to which it has been hitherto difficult to obtain any trustworthy information:—

"Setting out from Erzeroum, we complete the first day's journey by arriving at Hidja in the course of some three or four hours. For the first two hours, the new road follows the track of the old one as far as Kis-Keuz, a little village which forms the half-way station to Hidja, a small town on the banks of the Euphrates, opposite to another village famous for its warm sulphur baths. Our second day's journey brings us to Atch-Kaleh after a nine hours' ride. Leaving Hidja we follow the new road, which still keeps to the old Kob Dagh track, for a couple of kilometres, after which it takes a S.W. direction, passing several villages on the right and left, and hugging the left bank of the Euphrates, as far as the bridge of Joudaroush, where it crosses the river to the opposite bank, which it follows as far as Atch-Kaleh. From Atch-Kaleh, a village on the Euphrates, we still keep to the river bank for three hours, leaving the valley of the Euphrates, and entering that of Kob-Dagh, and passing through the village of Pourna-kapan. We now take a N.W. direction as far as the foot of the Kob-Dagh mountains, where the new road entirely quits the old route and plunges boldly up the sides of this range, taking a somewhat serpentine course to the first summit which is 2,400 metres above the level of the sea. Descending the other side as far as Kob-Dagh, the road follows a little river that flows into the valley of Massat-Deressi, and we shortly afterwards reach Maden-Khan, where we spent our third

shipping ports—the roads are also in a very primitive condition, and, during the Winter months, in many parts almost unavailable. The whole of the Samsoun district, which may be

night after a ride of ten or twelve hours. Our fourth day's journey is of the same length and carries us as far as Karadik. Following a W. direction on leaving Maden-Khan, we keep the right bank of the river Massat as far as Baibourt, where the new road once more joins the old one. Before reaching Baibourt we leave the valley of Massat and cross the old town-bridge, and continuing our road in the same direction we reach Kadarok. We next mount a hill and descending the other side we find ourselves in the plain of Varzahan, leaving a little village of the same name on one side. There we find the old Kazikli road, and immediately afterwards the new one ceases to follow it, and passes over the plain of Varzahan as far as Argon-Keupru, which here crosses the Balahar river. An hour further on, the new road once more joins the old one and we reach Kadarak, passing over the plain of Balahar, leaving on our right the village of that name. At the foot of this village we pass through Vezirnik to the Karakapan road. The next station to Kadarak is Gumush-haneh which we reach in ten hours by crossing the valley of Vezirnik, which runs in a N. direction until we come to the valley of Vavouk-Dagh, leaving the old road to follow its own course to the top of the ridge which is the boundary of the vilayet of Erzeroum.

"On reaching the highest point of this chain of mountains, which are from 1,900 to 2,000 metres above the sea level, the aspect of nature completely changes. The mountains become more thickly wooded and the rocks more ruggedly escarped; the valleys become narrower, the nature of the soil alters, and the road passes through masses of the bare rock cropping out here and there with great beauty and boldness. I was not only sur-

described by straight lines drawn from Samsoun to Sivas, thence to Angora, and northward again to Sinope, is celebrated for its fertility; yet there is not a single trunk road in the entire area.

prised at the natural change of aspect in this district, but I was still more so at the way in which the works of this part of the road, which is within the *vilayet* of Trebizond, were carried out. From this spot the road crosses a small table land, and follows the incline in a series of bold and graceful curves along the banks of the little river Souyoudereh as far as the gorge of Vavouk, where it passes over a viaduct of 150 metres in length. I was especially gratified at the way in which the bridges, viaducts, aqueducts, and other engineering works have been executed, and the manner in which the road has been carried over the most formidable natural obstacles. The road continues to follow the banks of the little river, as far as the village of Kalajik, through which it passes. A few hundred metres further on are some ancient Genoese ruins above the level of the road, immediately beneath which it traverses one of the difficult points mentioned in the account of my first journey, but which may be now easily passed by two carriages abreast. Beyond this point the road still continues on the same side of the river until we reach the Enzinghian road, which crosses it by a bridge of two arches, equally admirable for its grace and solidity. We were now on the right bank of the river, and passing several khans we alight at Sabian, where I was desirous of examining a two-arched bridge over the Karshoot, and other works at present in course of construction.

"Profiting by my halt I determined to gather all the information possible touching this road which has been so severely criticized by several journals, and I was resolved to see and judge for myself whether its constructors were deserving of the blame with which they have been visited. I accordingly questioned the

Immense quantities of grain, as well as tobacco and other produce, could be raised in the interior; but, without the means of transport, profitable cultivation is, as elsewhere, out of the

Khanjis and other inhabitants, as to how it happened that the half of the road within the *vilayet* of Erzeroum was not nearly so well made as the portion we were examining, although the natural difficulties in the case of the latter were many times greater and more numerous, and found that the excellence of the Trebizond half of the road was due to its construction having been personally superintended by M. Bechara, the engineer in charge. Passing the Erzinghian post-road, we arrive at Tekeh, a large village, 500 metres above the road. Two hours further on we reach Sorder, which is within view of the gardens of Gumush-haneh, our fifth resting place. Gumush-haneh is situated on the flank of a mountain, between 200 and 300 metres above the road, and on the left bank of the river, which runs at a distance of an hour's walk from the village. Following the same direction we pass the village of Besh-Kilisseh, where the road crosses an old bridge over the Karshoot, and one hour further on, a second bridge of three arches which spans the Kroumdereh. Keeping still on the same side of the river we again cross it at Ardasin, a place where a number of khans and houses were lately swept away by an inundation. Bearing to the N. it crosses a large wooden bridge of from twenty to thirty metres span. Here we leave the river side and the old road, and wind our way to Zigana-keui where we make our sixth halt. The next sleeping place to Zigana-keui is Jevizlik, distant about eleven hours. Leaving the former village, the gradients become gentler and the road climbs the sides of the Zigana range by means of eight graceful curves. It then continues onwards down the other incline, following the right bank of the Zigana river, and, passing for a couple of hours' ride through picturesque beech-forests,

question. The port of Samsoun is capable of being made one of the best in the Black Sea, and its exports should vie in importance with those of Odessa; but in order to effect any great improvement in the harbour, so as to render it safe and commodious, engineering works of rather a formidable character would be necessary. With numerous roadsteads on the south side of the Black Sea, Turkey does not possess one really good harbour; and although roads from the interior to the coasts would be in themselves an inestimable blessing to the Rayah population, they would be to a large extent useless without proper harbours for the shipment of surplus produce. The energies of the Government should be concentrated on Samsoun and Trebizond, to the exclusion of all other places of minor importance. To those two places, the whole of the surplus produce of the northern half of Asia Minor would come for shipment if good roads

we find ourselves within sight of Hamsi-keui, where a number of khans are being built, in view of the exigencies of the new route. Still following the right bank of the river we cross a fine bridge near Jevizlik, and pass a second batch of new khans.

"Our eighth and last journey carries us to Trebizond in about five hours. A little way outside Jevizlik we cross an old bridge over the Meriam-Ana-deressi river, the road following the direction of the river as far as Matarajik, where a two-metre bridge is passed, and after leaving a number of khans behind us, we find ourselves, at last, in the pleasant suburbs of Trebizond."

were made from the interior. If it were possible to complete a good road from Samsoun to Sivas; to clear out the river Sakaria—which waters a country, between Angora and the Black Sea, abounding in natural riches of the most varied character—and to canalise fifty miles of the Sarabat, which flows into the Gulf of Smyrna, the resulting advantages both to the people and the Government would be so apparent that an impetus would be given to the initiation of similar works elsewhere, and less difficulty be experienced in their accomplishment.

Nearly the whole of the produce and merchandise of Anatolia intended for export is brought to Smyrna for shipment; yet from this latter point, again, the roads into the interior are at times impassable. At the best, they are suited for camel transit alone; and but for the construction of the two lines of railway—the Aidin and the Cassaba—the prospects of the Smyrna trade would be anything but satisfactory. Whatever may be the ultimate result, however, in respect of the profits which may be earned by these lines, the policy of encouraging the formation of railways, while the roads in the interior remain in their present condition, is, to say the least, questionable. A sum of nearly £3,000,000 has been expended on the

construction of 141 miles of railway, whereas the same sum, if applied to the construction of first-rate roads, would have sufficed for 1,700 miles, which, as regards profit, would have been a better and more remunerative investment of capital. Putting railways before roads is very much like reversing the natural order of things. If the same amount of energy and capital had been expended on road construction as have been spent in the Aidin and Cassaba railways, the trade of Smyrna would, ere this, have been sensibly increased by an influx of produce from districts which are at present practically shut out from the seaboard.

Well-made roads, good canals, and inexpensive tramways for special situations, are the great *desiderata*, as Turkey can well afford to wait for the gradual introduction of railway communication.* There are some minds, however, which ignore roads, tramways, and all the lesser but cheaper means of communication in favour of railways. If an oke of tobacco is to be carried from Drama to Salonica, such people would immediately provide ballast, sleepers, metals, and

* I mean ordinary railway communication. Of course, it is perfectly understood that the Grand Turkish lines from the Save to the Bosphorus, and from the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf, are an actual necessity.

rolling stock in order to effect its transport; and it is such as they who are continually knocking at the door of the Porte, praying for concessions, which, to be of any value proportionate to the cost of the enterprises, should come, at least, half a century hence.

So long, indeed, as the present defective system of internal communication exists in Turkey, the full development of its agricultural resources must be seriously retarded. Rivers, harbours, and highways there may be in abundance; but if the first of these be simply tortuous torrents, the second, a compound of mud and gullies, and the third mere bridle-paths composed of ironbound ruts in Summer, and all but impassable sloughs of mud in Winter, their utility is but of minimum value. Good roads and serviceable canals are, besides, civilizing agents of the highest order, while, on the other hand, their absence restrains enterprise, diverts trade, and retards cultivation. When locomotion is slow, expensive, and at times impossible, community of interest and sentiment in the population is effectually prevented; the different parts of the machinery of government cannot work in unison, and the entire community languishes for want of arterial circulation. Of what value are bursting fields of cotton if the cost of transport would render its shipment to a

foreign market profitless? None; for in such a case poverty must be the fate of the cultivator. It is in vain to issue edicts having for their object the amelioration of the common lot, if the producer is unable to place his property within reach of the consumer; and it is equally futile to expect any great increase in the revenues of the State when merely the coast line of the Empire is capable of effective utilization.

A string of laden camels wending its way from the interior of Anatolia to the coast is not an edifying spectacle in these modern days; nor is one of the loaded skin-rafts of the Tigris, floating on the current from Diarbekhr to Bagdad, in any sense a proper substitute for the means of carriage which engineering science could provide; but both the camels and the rafts, as means of transport, could be rapidly superseded if liberal terms were offered to foreign capitalists by the Porte. It is true that efforts have, from time to time, been made by the government in the construction of roads, but, either from the fact that imperial interests have been made subservient to individual aggrandisement, or that the difficulties of the task have been under-estimated, those efforts have almost invariably resulted in disappointment. The characteristics of a good road are:—width, soundness of bottom, and easy gra-

dients, for the attainment of which no mean amount of engineering skill is requisite; while, to secure a firm substratum, an intimate acquaintance with the best available materials, and thorough drainage in construction, are absolutely necessary. To fill up the holes in a widened horse-track with loose rubble, and call it a road, is simply a misuse of the term. The labour so expended is profitless, and to dignify such repairs by the name of public works can only result from ignorance and self-delusion on the part of both engineers and contractors. There is, probably, no enterprise in Turkey which would be more remunerative than that of the construction of roads or tramways, and of this the road, made by a French Company, between Beyrout and Damascus is a proof.*

* The making of this fine carriage-road—a distance of about seventy miles—has been of the greatest possible benefit, not only to its terminal cities, but to the whole district through which it runs. Viewed as a specimen of civil engineering, the work is highly creditable; the road being carried across the range of the Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, by easy gradients, at the respective elevations of 6000 and 4000 feet, and at a cost which makes the working of the road a highly remunerative business to the shareholders. The Company have the monopoly of all wheeled conveyances over the road for a term of fifty years, and the traveller between Beyrout and Damascus is now able to engage a seat in a well-appointed *diligence*, while the merchant can send his goods in the Company's covered waggons without entertaining a doubt as to their due arrival in good order and condition.

Effective administration of the internal affairs of an empire, and defective means of communication between its several parts, cannot co-exist. Practically, justice cannot be administered in a community where an appeal to the source from which it flows is a physical impossibility; while without transit facilities for barter, the intelligent skill of a people is worthless, and the accumulalation of individual wealth impracticable. So evenly balanced, however, are the topographical advantages of the Turkish Empire that there is no one spot so situated as to preclude the transport of its produce to a profitable market, provided that there existed good roads, serviceable canals, and renovated sea-ports. When Turkey really possesses these, she will be one of the richest countries in the world.

CHAPTER X.

RAILWAYS.

WHEN the Sultan visited Western Europe a few years ago, it was said that nothing impressed him more strongly than the rapid means of internal communication which he saw, and, from that time, no efforts have been spared by the Porte to carry out the wishes of His Majesty for the creation of a large system of railways in Turkey. At first, the scheme appeared almost impossible, but difficulties are half overcome when they are boldly grappled with, and, now, the first step has been taken which may, in a few years at farthest, realise to the fullest extent the desires of the Sovereign. The works of the Roumelian railways have been commenced that shall connect the Bosphorus with the Save, and open up direct communication between the rich valleys of Thrace and Macedonia and the ports

of Salonica, Enos, and Constantinople. The first section from Stamboul to Kutchuk-Tchekmédjé has been working for some time past, and when the line is complete, the direct route from London to India will be more than half accomplished; for the railway whistle now heard at the Seven Towers will, in due time, reverberate amidst the hills of Anatolia, and astonish the roving Bedawîns on the banks of the Euphrates and the Tigris.

In the combination of this great public work, many difficulties had to be encountered, but they were courageously met and skilfully overcome. Four years ago the project began to assume a consistent form. At that time, the Porte granted two separate concessions; the one for a line 1,700 miles in length, from Constantinople to the Persian Gulf, the other, 600 miles, from Stamboul to Belgrade. In a short time, however, the *concessionnaire* for the former line proved himself unable to complete the establishment of his Company. That portion of the scheme consequently fell through, and has, up to this time, not been renewed. The latter line promised better results, as the works were actually commenced, but, in the beginning of 1869, it was found that the terms of the concession were of such a character

as necessitated the cessation, if not the entire abandonment of the enterprise. The Government thus saw the brilliant scheme, which it had so long contemplated, on the point of extinction; but, instead of despairing, it, on the contrary, conceived the bold idea of constructing the two lines itself. For this purpose, a loan was proposed to be raised by means of an English guarantee, but on terms which, I think, in the interest of the Government itself, it was most fortunate were not accepted.

Besides the interest of eight per cent. on the loan, the Porte agreed to pledge, in exchange for the guarantee, the revenue of the railways themselves, as well as that of the telegraphs, together with the taxes of the provinces through which the lines were to run; and, in addition, to assure to England the conveyance of her troops to India on very favourable conditions, and to carry the mails for nothing. This would certainly have been an excellent bargain for England, but a very onerous one indeed for Turkey. Fortunately, however, the idea was not carried out to a definite issue, and a much more complete plan than at first contemplated has since been arranged,—resulting in a modification of the concession for the European portion of the scheme, which has

grown from the project of a mere line to Belgrade to that of a line from Stamboul, *viâ* Adrianople, to the Save, with branches to Enos and Salonica. By this change, Constantinople will be brought into direct communication with the European system, and, once the line is completed, London will be within one hundred hours of the Turkish capital. The Asiatic portion of the scheme cannot fail to be soon carried out; and England will then have an easy and direct route to her Eastern possessions, which must result in immense advantages both to Great Britain and Turkey, and draw closer the ties of interest that already connect them with each other.

The arrangements for raising the capital, making the railways, and effectively controlling their construction and subsequent working, appear to be, in nearly every respect, unexceptionable. The *concessionnaires* are, by the terms of their convention, bound to finish the whole network in seven years; but the actual working of the lines devolves upon another and distinct Company which takes over the sections as they are, from time to time, completed. Thus, there are three parties to the transaction; the Government, the *concessionnaires* (or the Company that represents them) and the working company,—all of which have separate

interests in the scheme, although the interests of each are equally at stake in the economical construction and working of the lines. The extent of the network will be 1,800 to 2,000 kilometres, requiring a capital of 500,000,000 frs., or 250,000 frs. per kilometre, which is raised on the credit of the revenues arising from the working of the lines themselves. The working company guarantees a minimum of 22,000 frs. of gross receipts per kilometre throughout the whole term of the concession. Of this, fifty per cent. will go in working expenses, and the remainder will be paid, by way of rent, to the Concessionnaire Company which constructs the lines. Of this latter sum, 3,000 frs. will represent the interest on 30,000 frs. of rolling stock supplied by the working company, and the balance of 8,000 frs. per kilometre will be capitalized by the Concessionnaire Company at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; or, in other words, will form a guarantee for the share capital subscribed, thus giving the company a capital of 110,000 frs. per kilometre. In addition, the Government gives a guarantee of 14,000 frs. per kilometre, and this capitalized, in like manner, at eleven per cent., will produce 127,000 frs., which, with the rolling stock supplied by the working company, will represent a

total capital of 267,000 frs. per kilometre for the making of the lines.

During the construction, however, and until three years after their completion, the Porte also further guarantees the 8,000 frs. per kilometre payable by the working company. Its actual obligation, therefore, for the first ten years may be set down at 22,000 frs. per kilometre. For the interest upon the capital raised on these guarantees of the Porte and the working company, certificates will, from time to time, be issued to the shareholders, bearing the signature of the Government; but the capital itself will be deposited in banks chosen by the Porte, and will be only paid to the contractors as the work advances, and then always with cheques countersigned by the Minister of Public Works. The agreement entered into between the Concessionnaire Company and the contractors must also be first submitted to and approved by the Government; while the progress of the works will be superintended by a special engineer, who will exercise a control over them on behalf both of the State and the working company. In this manner, the Porte will effectively supervise not only the application of the capital, but the construction of the lines, which will also be controlled by the working com-

pany, who have a direct interest in seeing that the railways are well and solidly made. Again, as the sections are finished and handed over to the latter company, the Concessionnaire Company, as well as the Government, has an interest in their success, since the gross proceeds over and above the 32,000 frs. per kilometre will be divided—fifty per cent. to the Working Company, twenty per cent. to the Concessionnaire Company, and thirty per cent. to the State.

Besides its responsibility for 22,000 frs. per kilometre during the first ten years, the Porte also guarantees during the second ten years, independent of its own grant of 14,000 frs., a further 2,000 frs. in the event of the receipts of the lines not attaining 18,000 frs. per kilometre. But, during the last seventy-nine years of the concession, the entire charge upon the Treasury will not exceed the fixed yearly guarantee of 14,000 frs. per kilometre, or, on the whole, twenty-eight millions of francs per annum. This, after all, can scarcely be called a heavy sacrifice for the State to make when the object in view is considered, and the immense advantages are taken into account which must inevitably result, both politically and commercially, to the Empire, once Constantinople is united in a direct line

with the capitals of the West, and her three principal ports in Europe are attached to that great national highway which must, in time, reach to the shores of the Persian Gulf. Turkey, no more than Russia, can expect to make her railways without some sacrifice; yet Russia expended 80,000,000 frs. in 1866 on her railway communications; 100,000,000 frs. in 1867; 156,000,000 frs. in 1868; and 128,000,000 frs. in 1869,—or a total sum of 464,000,000 frs. in four years.

It will, of course, be objected that, considering the amount already absorbed in the payment of interest on the home and foreign debt, Turkey cannot afford so heavy an addition to the existing charges on its revenue. This might be readily granted if the Porte were not determined to take active measures for the gradual increase of its income. But the value of such works as a means of developing the natural wealth of the country, and thereby adding to the revenue of the State, once admitted, the policy of carrying them out, at any reasonable sacrifice, is clear; particularly so, when the cost which they entail can be met, over and over again, by such retrenchments as are now being made, not in one, but in many branches of the administration. At the outset of

this great scheme, the charge upon the Porte will no doubt be considerable; but it is as certain as anything economically can be, that the material development of the districts traversed by the lines will, in a few years, not merely balance these charges, but leave over and above an ample surplus of revenue. On the whole, therefore, I feel confident that railways, such as these, will do for Turkey what they are fast doing for Russia,—enormously increase her military strength, and ultimately enrich both the Government and the population of the country.

CHAPTER XI.

RAILWAY TO THE PERSIAN GULF.

THE rapid progress of the railway that will bring London within one hundred hours of Constantinople recalls attention to the equally great enterprise of an iron highway from the Mediterranean or the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf, which has been for more than twenty years before the public. Three projects have been proposed with this view: the first, that of the Euphrates valley route, proposed by General Chesney, Sir John Macneill, and Mr. W. P. Andrew; the second (though latest in order of time), that of Mr. Latham; and the third, the grander if more difficult scheme of Sir Macdonald Stephenson. The first, so long and ably agitated by Mr. Andrew, has never, I believe, been put forward as one likely in itself to be remunerative, but rather as an undertaking es-

sential to our own national interests. Mr. Latham's modification of this scheme, although undoubtedly possessing some special merits, has hitherto lacked the influential sponsorship necessary to its success; while Sir Macdonald Stephenson's great enterprise was deemed by many an impossibility, as, at the time it was mooted, no more advanced European starting-point could be found than Vienna. Now, however, that the Roumelian railway will unite the Straits of Dover with the Bosphorus, half the practical argument against Sir Macdonald's project will be removed, and it is fast becoming probable that the prophecy made by him, seventeen years ago, will be an accomplished fact before the world is another decade older.

The practicability of the Euphrates valley route was early demonstrated by a costly survey made by Sir John Macneill and General Chesney; but doubts as to its commercial prospects discouraged Her Majesty's Government from giving the guarantee, without which capitalists refused the means to carry it out. The scheme, as first projected by General Chesney and Sir John Macneill, involved departure from Europe at Trieste or Brindisi, whence steamers would run to Suedia, on the coast of Syria. Thence, a line of rail-

way would be carried up the Orontes valley to Antioch, and on by Aleppo to Ja'ber Castle on the Euphrates, and finally down to the confluence of the latter river with the Tigris at Kurnah. From this point, a line of powerful steamers would continue the communication to Kurrachee on the Indus, from which place railways are now complete to Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, and the north-western provinces of India. Pending the development of the expected river traffic, however, it was proposed to lay down the railway over only the first section of the route, from the Mediterranean to Ja'ber Castle, whence a fleet of steamers would continue the communication to Kurnah and Bussorah. By this line, the estimated saving of time between London and Calcutta would be about sixteen or seventeen days out of thirty—once the entire railway was complete.

The route proposed by Mr. Latham was to be from Alexandretta, instead of Suedia, and thence, by the Beilan Pass and Antioch, to Aleppo and across the Euphrates at Birejik. But whereas the original scheme of Messrs. Andrew, Chesney, and Macneill turned sharp down the river-valley from Ja'ber Castle, through the arid wastes of the south, Mr. Latham proposed to go, at the

cost of some two hundred miles of increased distance, through Northern Mesopotamia, past Orfa, Mardin, Jezireh, Mosul, and Bagdad; hitting the Gulf at Kurnah or Bussorah—in fact, the established post and caravan route through a settled and cultivated country. This line would, as I have stated, be some two hundred miles longer than that projected by General Chesney, but it would, on the other hand, have commercial advantages over the latter which would amply counterbalance the trifling difference of time and extra cost of construction involved.

Alexandretta, besides, is a fine natural harbour, easily made at all times, and affording shelter in nearly every state of the wind; while it is, at the same time, the long-established outlet for Northern Syria, through which the vast transit traffic of the interior has passed for ages. A small outlay on drainage would render it as healthy as any point along the coast; whilst, inland, Beilan presents no considerable engineering difficulties whatever. Eastwards, too, Mr. Latham's proposed line would have many and weighty advantages over that by the Euphrates. The latter, whether it were opened up first by river navigation—the practicability of which is, to say the least, doubtful—or, at once, by a line

of railway throughout, would run through a comparatively desert country, devoid of trade, and at the mercy of the Arabs. In fact, for many years, it would have to depend mainly, if not entirely, on its through Indian traffic for support.

Mr. Latham's route, on the contrary, would run through a populous and commercially active chain of provinces, past thriving towns, and with resources for increased trade everywhere abundant. Mosul and Bagdad—not to mention Diarbekhr, which would be rendered tributary by a good branch tramway—are emporia in themselves sufficient to feed a cheaply constructed and carefully managed line. The actual distance, it is true, by this route would be some two hundred miles greater; but this would be more than compensated for by its immense relative advantages of abundant and cheap labour and material for making the line throughout, and by the trade and industrial activity already in vigorous existence along its whole extent from Scanderoon to the Gulf,—in addition to the Indian traffic, which would certainly not be less than by the torrid solitudes of the Euphrates.*

* This modification of the route is advocated by the *Levant Herald*, which, in a recent article on the subject, says: "We are glad to learn that a modification of the route is likely to be

The grand idea, however, of Sir Macdonald Stephenson which, seventeen years ago, was deemed little more than a splendid chimera, sinks now to the level of practicable common-place in

adopted by the promoters of the line with which Lord Dalling and Bulwer's name has recently been associated, that will avoid the drawbacks and combine most of the advantages of both Mr. Andrew's and Sir M. Stephenson's schemes. Starting at either Alexandretta or Seleucia, this line would strike and cross the Euphrates at Birejik, the point at which the existing caravan route crosses the river, and, following along the top of the desert, it would closely skirt a populous and well-cultivated country, meeting only one considerable line of hills at Orfa. Thence, the thriving towns of Mardin, Nisibin, Mosul, and Bagdad would be reached through one of the richest alluvial valleys in the world, which, with such an outlet for its teeming produce, would soon become a chief granary of Europe, and a cotton field rivalling India itself. The extra distance which would give these vast traffic advantages—capable of early and immense development—over the Euphrates route, would add only about two hundred miles between the two seas, and, at the cost of less than half a day's additional time to the Indian journey, would, in a decade, advance, by centuries, the civilization and material progress of this Morning-land of our race. In fact, to those who know the country, the advantages of the Tigris over the Euphrates route, in every respect, except distance, simply admits of no discussion. But if they were greater, this line would still be only an imperfect link in our communication with India. To complete the chain, as perfectly as the present generation may hope to see it, Sir Macdonald Stephenson's Trans-Asia Minor line must still be constructed, not due east to the Persian frontier, but south-eastwards across the Taurus, and join the Mediterranean line somewhere near Killis or Aintab. This will be the natural and

these days of Indo-European and Trans-Atlantic telegraphy. In fact, by the progress already made in its fulfilment since it was first enunciated by its eminent promoter, the project may be said to be almost half achieved. The original scheme of Sir Macdonald contemplated a continuous chain of railways from Calais to Calcutta, traversing Europe to the Bosphorus, and, hence, across Asia Minor to Persia, Beloochistan, and the Indus; and, now that the Roumelian railway is progressing — which was the first part of Sir Macdonald's idea — the second section, or, at least, that portion of it from the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf, is beginning to re-attract attention. In an able pamphlet on railway communication with India, published by Professor Chenery, the line is shown to be not only practicable, but inexpensive. Some parts of the route have already been surveyed. A short piece from

necessary extension of the Roumelian system now in course of construction; for, without it, the great European line to the Bosphorus would be ending 'nowhere.' The true solution of this Indian railway problem, and the order of it, we take, then, to be—the construction, first, of the Tigris Valley line as proposed by Lord Dalling's combination, and, after it, as soon as financially may be, Sir M. Stephenson's great Asia Minor link, completing the chain between the English Channel and the Persian Gulf."

Scutari to Ismidt has been thoroughly done, and more than one route has been examined into the interior in the direction of Eski-Shehr, Angora, and Afiun Kara-Hissar. The line now suggested is by Ismidt, Kutahia, Afiun Kara-Hissar, Konieh, Ak-Serai, Yeni-Shehr, Kaisaria, and Aleppo. The most difficult part of the line would be that between Ismidt and Kutahia or Eski-Shehr, where there would be a section, happily of not more than ten miles, on which the works would necessarily be of an expensive character.

From Afiun Kara-Hissar, however, to the northern base of the Taurus there is no extraordinary difficulty. That portion lying to the north-east of Alexandretta has not yet been surveyed, but although this is, perhaps, the most difficult part of the line, there is nothing in it which may not be easily accomplished, at no excessive cost, in the present state of science. From Aleppo to the Persian Gulf the route is almost a complete flat, and the only addition to the cost of the works would arise from the necessity of crossing the various affluents of the Euphrates, which, although nearly dried up in the Summer, roll a considerable torrent in the rainy season of the year. The entire line, con-

structed with proper solidity, and capable of bearing traffic at a high rate of speed, might, it is estimated, be made through the whole of Asiatic Turkey, from the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf, for £12,000 to £15,000 a mile.

The distance between London and Constantinople, on the completion of the Roumelian railway, will be traversed in one hundred hours. On the Asiatic portion of the line, assuming it to be well constructed, the trains might easily travel at an average of twenty-five miles an hour, including stoppages, and that, for the distance, one thousand five hundred miles, between the Bosphorus and Bussorah, would give sixty hours,—a total of one hundred and sixty hours, or six days sixteen hours from London to the Gulf. It is suggested that the railway should be continued, in course of time, to Bundar Abbas, otherwise Gombroon, a place now belonging to the Imaum of Muscat, and formerly the seat of a considerable trade.

The distance from Bussorah to Bunder Abbas is seven hundred miles, which, at twenty-five miles an hour, would be traversed in twenty-eight hours. Add to this the hundred and sixty hours before mentioned, and we have the duration of the whole transit between London and

Bunder Abbas,—one hundred and eighty-eight hours, or seven days twenty hours. From Bunder Abbas to Kurrachee, along the coast, is a distance of seven hundred and fifty miles, which might be traversed by a steamer in less than three days. If, at any future time, a railway were carried along the Mekran coast, this part of the journey would be further accelerated. But taking Bunder Abbas as the terminus, we have the whole time, from the British Capital to the nearest Indian port, about ten days and a half instead of thirty, the time now occupied by the route through Egypt.

In comparing, however, the merits of the several schemes for a railway to the Persian Gulf, it will be apparent that one of the chief advantages which that of Sir Macdonald Stephenson possesses, is that, it will soon have its first great section, from Calais to the Bosphorus, completed by the construction of the Roumelian lines. This is an advantage which, though originally looked forward to by Sir Macdonald, his scheme had not when first projected, but which now, unquestionably, gives it an enormous superiority over Mr. Andrew's proposed route; as the break in the latter, between the Italian coast of the Adriatic and Suedia, is an objection that is im-

possible to be overcome. The line proper, therefore, from Scutari, starting with this advantage, will have a certainty of enormous European through traffic already secured to it. This, it is true, may also, as far as Brindisi, be claimed for Mr. Andrew's scheme, but from that port to the Gulf this latter—with the exception of the short run through Northern Syria—would be almost entirely dependent on the direct traffic *alone* for its support; seeing that little or nothing could be expected from the long stretch of desert to be traversed from Ja'ber Castle to Bussorah. Not so, however, with Sir Macdonald Stephenson's proposed route through Asia Minor; as from Scutari to Alexandretta, and thence to Aleppo, it would run through populous and well-cultivated districts, with a large traffic at once available, and which would be speedily and enormously increased by the transport facilities afforded by such a line.

The dividend-paying value of this traffic would, of course, depend on the cost of the railway, but a reliable estimate of the expense of its construction states the average, at the outside, at not more than the sum I have mentioned—£12,000 to £15,000 a mile. The success, too, of the Smyrna and Cassaba railway—which, when

extended to Eski-Shehr, will itself become an important feeder to this great trunk line—justifies the belief that a large and profitable local traffic would speedily become available, seeing that, although the Cassaba railway begins, indeed, at an important port, it may be said to end nowhere; whereas the Trans-Asia Minor line would run through and connect all the most important industrial and producing districts between the Bosphorus and the Euphrates. For example, the principal north road which starts from Alexandretta through Asia Minor forms a junction at Kutahia with the roads from Brussa and Angora, and, continuing thence in a still northerly direction to Ismidt, skirts the north-eastern shore of the Sea of Marmora to Scutari on the Bosphorus. From Smyrna the main east road passes through Ali-Shehr to Sandukli and Afiun Kara-Hissar, whence it branches, in a north and north-easterly direction to Ismidt and Angora, and, south-easterly, to Konieh and the Syrian frontier. These districts, too, are well watered by the Kasalmack, the Kizel-Irmak, the Sakaria, the Sarabat, and the Bojuk-Meinder, which are all, more or less, adapted for canalization, and would, by such means, become feeders for a railway running from Scutari to Alexandretta. Such a

line, therefore, as proposed by Sir Macdonald Stephenson, passing by Ismidt, Kutahia, Afiun Kara-Hissar, Konieh, Ak-Serai, Yeni-Shehr, and Kaiseria, would connect important centres of population, and speedily attract to itself the goods traffic of the great opium, silk, wool, grain, and oil producing districts of Anatolia.

Once arrived at Alexandretta, Sir Macdonald Stephenson's scheme, in common with that of Mr. Latham, would possess the great advantage over Mr. Andrew's line of pursuing the long-established caravan route followed now, and for centuries past, by the local transport trade, as well as by that between the Mediterranean and the Trans-Euphrates countries. Thus, by taking this track instead of that from Suedia, the line would immediately command a large traffic, as the imports and exports at Aleppo have been estimated at £2,500,000 per annum;—while, although the distance between the town and its port is only sixty miles, the present cost of conveying goods for shipment is £6 per ton, and the carriage of wheat 17*s.* 6*d.* per quarter, or double the price of the grain itself. From Aleppo, however, Sir Macdonald's route, as I understand it, joins that proposed by Mr. Andrew, and shares the disadvantages of the latter by striking the

Euphrates at Ja'ber Castle, and thence following the desert river valley down south to Kurnah, instead of adhering to the old-established track over the Euphrates at Birejik, and thence, across Northern Mesopotamia, through a populous and productive country, and past the thriving towns of Orfa—further fed by a tramway or short branch to Diarbekhr—Mardin, Nisibin, Jezireh, Zakho, Mosul, and Bagdad.

Nearly the whole of this country is rich in oil, wheat, barley, maize, rice, tobacco, madder-roots, wool, mohair, silk, tallow, fruits, honey, cotton, galls, orpiment, wax, and gums; but, although a large trade at present exists, it is as nothing compared with what it might become if more rapid means of communication were once established between the interior and the coast. In the neighbourhood of Mosul, for example, so expensive is the cost of transit that bread made from the finest flour is sold at thirty paras an oke, whereas, in Constantinople, it costs three and a-half to four piastres. It has been, in fact, calculated that if only one half of the surface of Mesopotomia were put under cultivation, it would yield grain equal to the produce of the whole of France; and that, if conveyed to Alexandretta by rail, ample supplies could be sold in London at

the same price, if not cheaper, than that brought from Odessa, with the advantage of its arriving periodically in the early Spring, when the price of wheat is usually on the rise in the Western markets. Up to the very slopes of the Kurdish mountains the soil teems with fertility; and a settled and industrious population would not merely afford cheap and abundant labour for the construction of the railway, but, at the same time, provide an amount of protection and local traffic which could by no means be obtained on the route by Ja'ber Castle. Besides, the towns I have enumerated, as well as the many smaller ones which border on this great caravan route, would supply the elements of safety and success to an extent such as Annah, Semlum, Hillah, and the other far-between Arab hamlets on the river would be totally unable to furnish. It is true, as already admitted, that this route is longer by about two hundred miles than that by the Euphrates, but the former possesses advantages which would much more than compensate for any expense occasioned by the *détour* north-eastwards. The trifling increased difference would continue to the line from Aleppo to the Gulf all the advantages of a local traffic scarcely, if at all, inferior to that which may be hoped for from Asia Minor,

—a consideration, it need scarcely be said, which would give this section an immense economical superiority over the Valley Route, without losing a passenger or a ton of the through traffic between Europe and India.*

* While promoters and capitalists are, however, wasting time in discussing the various schemes for railway communications with India, the Porte, with an energy that cannot be over-praised, has grappled with so much of the problem as concerns its own immediate interests, and bids fair to have a trunk line, with several lateral feeders, carried more than half way from the Bosphorus to the Taurus before Sir Macdonald Stephenson, Mr. W. P. Andrew, and all the rest of the great projectors have agreed on even their *point de départ*. "The announcement," says the *Levant Herald*, "that the Porte has decided on carrying on to Eski-Shehr the Scutari-Ismidt line of railway—the rapid and economical construction of which is doing real credit to Edhem Pasha, Minister of Public Works—removes an important link in the chain of difficulties which has hitherto fettered the question of railway extension in Asia Minor. The first section from Scutari to Ismidt, begun only a few months ago, is now more than half made, and will, we are told, be completed and ready for opening in Autumn next, at an average cost of little more than £4,000 a mile—a rapidity of construction and economy of cost which contrast notably indeed with the expenditure of time and money on every other existing Turkish railway. The line of country traversed is, to be sure, an easy one, and the quality of the work is, probably, not more than second class; but as regards this last, Edhem Pasha has wisely avoided the costly errors of, more or less, all four companies whose lines are now in operation. Solidity, rather than ornament, is regarded in the construction of his masonry and earthworks: not an unnecessary piastre is

It is, therefore, not an unreasonable expectation that the lowest traffic would, within a year or two after the opening of the line, pay four or five per cent. on the expenditure; nor is it extravagant

spent on his stations; and, instead of expensive Bessemer steel, he is wisely content with such iron rails as were considered good enough for nearly every line in England twelve or fifteen years ago. The result promises to be a thoroughly substantial railway, fully adapted to the work it will have to perform, and constructed at less than half the cost of any other line in the country. Its extension for some eighty miles further, to Eski-Shehr, will no doubt be carried out with a similar rigorous economy, but the greater difficulties of the country will probably add 40 or 50 per cent. to the cost of this second link; although, once the line is carried over or round Mount Seugud—written Shigout on most of our English maps—into the valley of the Sakaria, no heavy difficulties need be met with. Eski-Shehr, itself, will not form a terminal station of such importance as to show the full value of the extension; but, as a preliminary concession has already been granted to the Cassaba Company for the prolongation of their railway to that point, a junction of the two lines at this centre will supply the great desideratum of through communication between the capital and Smyrna, besides providing outlets at both these terminal ports for the produce of the fine expanse of fertile country north-east of Cassaba. From Eski-Shehr, too, will start the further extensions, either due east to Angora and Sivas, or down south towards Konieh and the Taurus—the latter solving half the difficulty of the great Anglo-Indian scheme, and the former, if first decided on, providing a transport artery for central Asia Minor which, in a single five years, would probably double its produce and tax-revenue to the Government. Whatever, therefore, is to be the railway future of the great Anatolian Peninsula, this extension to Eski-Shehr is of the highest im-

to suppose that this would be increased by the passenger and through traffic, so that, in a very few years, the earnings would amply cover any guarantee that might be undertaken either by our own or the Turkish Government. The traffic between India and Europe, so long carried on through the Atlantic and the Indian Ocean, is showing a disposition to return to its more direct and natural course ; and I believe that the proposed scheme of a railway from Scutari to the Gulf, with the modification I have mentioned from Aleppo, possesses all the elements, not merely of engineering practicability at a moderate cost, but of great subsequent commercial success.

portance, and affords a solid pledge of the resolute purpose of the Sultan and his Ministers to grapple with the chief industrial want of the Empire—increased railway communication."

CHAPTER XII.

DOCKS AND HARBOURS.

WHEN a country is deficient in roads, it is easy to predicate the state of its harbours. With its splendid seaboard, on which are some of the finest natural harbours in the world, the vessels visiting the shores of Turkey are not only comparatively restricted in tonnage, but there are few ports into which they can safely enter, and fewer still in which a cargo of merchandise can be safely discharged. The vast increase in both imports and exports has, for several years past, made the special accommodation of quays and docks more and more felt in the case of the capital itself, and only in a lesser degree in that of the principal outlying ports, such as Smyrna, Trebizond, Samsoun, Salonica, and Beyrout. Practical recognition has been given to this fact by, at least, two serious efforts to meet the evident

want—one for Constantinople, and the other for Smyrna. For the former, two different concessions were granted, and under conditions of promotion which warranted the hope of their being successfully carried out; but, in both cases, conflicting interests interfered with the realization of the scheme, and the parties concerned, instead of combining to carry out such a great and useful work, preferred rather to throw obstacles in the way, and, like the dog in the manger, prevent that being done by others which they were unable to carry out themselves. Thus, in point of quay and warehouse accommodation, the great port of Constantinople remains hardly, if at all, better off than Alexandretta or Samsoun, and that, too, with an increasing trade, which every day takes still greater proportions. For example, the total number of vessels that entered and cleared at the port of Constantinople in the year 1837, was only 7,342; in 1838, the number was 11,250; in 1848, 13,239; in 1852, 15,770; while, in 1869, the number was calculated to be 39,901, with a total tonnage of 7,916,645. The imports, alone, into Constantinople, are estimated at £10,000,000 per annum.

In the case of the Smyrna quay scheme, which proposed to meet the wants, in this respect, of

the second port of the Empire, the carrying out of a great public work of primary importance to all concerned with the chief maritime outlet of Asia Minor, was similarly defeated by conflicting private interests,—insignificant, it is true, in themselves, but still cumulatively influential enough to have the effect of reducing the original scheme to proportions of half its real value to the local trader. The greater part of the produce and merchandise of Anatolia, intended for export, is brought to Smyrna for shipment, and the trade, both in imports and exports, is every year rapidly increasing. In fact, the commerce of the place has actually been doubled within a very short space of time. In the year 1852, the imports and exports at Smyrna amounted to £2,603,328. In 1860, they had risen to £4,409,310, while in 1869, they had still further increased to—imports, £3,586,780; exports, £4,540,350; total, £8,127,130. The wants of the port, in quay and warehouse accommodation, for such a trade as this, is, therefore, manifestly very great; for although the bay, at the head of which the town is built, affords excellent anchorage and a good depth of water, there is no quay to which vessels can come alongside; and cargo is, consequently, loaded and discharged by means of the old and

primitive system of lighters,—always at great risk, and frequently with considerable damage to costly and perishable goods.

In another year or two, however, Smyrna will possess some sort of quay accommodation, which, if not fully commensurate with its wants, will, at all events, be such as the capital itself can unfortunately make no pretension to; and, with the exception of the harbour works of Varna and Kustendjie, it will be the only port in the Empire possessing any quay accommodation whatever.

Beyrout, also, which is the port of Mount Lebanon and Damascus—in fact, the principal maritime outlet of Syria—is even in a worse condition than Smyrna, although its trade has been, actually, doubled in the short space of four years. The port is simply an open roadstead, from which ships have frequently to run for shelter; all goods require to be lightered from vessels riding at anchor, and there is not accommodation at the custom-house for the goods which are at times discharged. The damage done to property, by reason of insufficient landing facilities, is frequently a severe tax on importers; whilst the risk, consequent on the lighterage of cargo, is such as should not be imposed on any mercantile community. Yet nothing would be easier than the

construction of an efficient breakwater and a commodious quay, to the cost of which the merchants of Beyrout would, without doubt, contribute.

Jerusalem cannot, in any sense, be considered a trading centre; but the port of Jaffa, the southernmost port in Syria, is a rising place, and the *entrepôt* for Jerusalem, Nablous, Gaza, and the interior of Palestine. To it, is brought the whole surplus produce of the valley of the Jordan for shipment, and, as cultivation is largely on the increase, it is clear that, unless some steps be taken to improve the port, shippers will be compelled to look out for another transit route. A modern road, on the model of that from Beyrout to Damascus, has been projected between Jaffa and Jerusalem, and will, when executed, be a great boon to the travelling public, as well as to the myriads of pilgrims who annually toil over the track by which the two places are, at present, connected.*

As the attractions of an easy pathway to the Holy City are very great to the devout of all Christian nations, the Porte would,

* The *Levant Herald* of April 24, 1872, says:—"A private letter from Paris states that a Company has been formed for the construction of a railway from Jaffa to Jerusalem."

probably, look with increased favour on a well-devised project for the improvement of the port of Jaffa, at which the only landing-place, both for passengers and goods, is a very unsuitable erection of about eleven feet long; while a natural breakwater, eight hundred feet in length, protects the harbour, which is so silted up as to be available only for coasting craft—larger vessels being obliged to anchor in the roadstead. That the port of Jaffa is capable of being made good and safe for vessels of average sea-going tonnage does not admit of doubt, and works of a substantial and enduring character could easily be undertaken. A good road is much wanted from Nablous on the north, and from Kerek across the ford of the Dead Sea, through Gaza on the south; such roads as these, running into Jaffa, would be of material service in the transport of produce. If the port were put in good condition—with a new breakwater and serviceable quays—and a road driven in a north-easterly direction, by way of Nablous, into the Pashalic of Damascus, Jaffa would soon become a great emporium of trade.

Cyprus possesses two ports — Larnaca and Limasol. The old port of Famagûsta, on the eastern side of the island, is entirely neglected—

notwithstanding the spaciousness and safety of its harbour—in favour of Larnaca, which has simply an open roadstead. The latter is, certainly, some fifteen miles nearer to Nicosia, the capital of the island, than the former; but such a trifling distance should have no weight when the difference between the two is so considerable. If the marshes in the vicinage of Famagûsta were drained, the harbour cleared, and the old works to seaward reconstructed, Cyprus would possess one of the finest harbours in the Levant. The roads are rather better in Cyprus than in most other parts of the Ottoman Empire, but they still fall far short of the requirements of the island. From Nicosia, which is centrally situated, roads, varying in importance from bullock tracks to bridle paths, radiate to different parts of the island,— one going through Larnaca, Limasol, and Famagûsta. A good road, however, from the capital of the island to Larnaca is much needed, and before any important expansion of trade can take place, the whole of the roads will require to be substantially improved. At present, with only a small proportion of the arable area under cultivation, even the existing roads are quite inadequate. At one time, Cyprus was the granary of the Levant, and, if its agricultural

and mineral resources were but fairly developed, the island would yield a revenue to the State which would justify a large expenditure on works of public improvement.

The principal ports in the island of Crete are Canea, Candia, Retimo and Souda; but Spinalonga and Messarea, the one on the north and the other on the south side, are both places of some importance. A few inexpensive roads opening up the interior would greatly promote cotton cultivation, while the harbours might be much improved by judicious dredging so as to safely admit steamers of heavy tonnage. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, the want of a convenient port of call has been much felt, and, in consequence, considerable attention is now directed to Souda. The port of Souda is secure in all weather, and, by its geographical position, is naturally designed, not only as the port of transit, but also as the *entrepôt* for the commerce which is daily increasing, *viâ* the Suez Canal, between Europe and India. The Turkish government has determined on making the bay of Souda a naval station for its Mediterranean fleet, and, in view of the probable future of the port, has executed a number of important works, while others are in course of construction. Amongst

these are a dock, an arsenal, a foundry with workshops attached, a steam saw-mill, yards for boat-building and the making of ship's gear, masts, &c.

Buildings have also been erected containing offices for the various departments, and lodgings for the clerks and workmen at the arsenal; together with warehouses for storing timber, and dépôts suitable for a coaling station. A fine barrack, capable of accommodating five hundred soldiers, with sufficient space of ground for military exercises, is likewise being built. The old salt-pits on the shore at Souda have been filled up, the surrounding land drained, and, on the 26th of June last, the inauguration of a new town, called Aziziyé, took place upon the spot. The foundations of this new town have been marked out, plans prepared, the land chosen, and buildings commenced. An hotel and restaurant is also in course of completion. The inhabitants of the islet of Souda, near the entrance to the port, will remove to the town of Aziziyé, and strong fortifications will be erected on the ground vacated. Two other forts will be constructed at either side of the port. A road between Canea and Souda is nearly finished, and a road-steamer, ordered from England, will run upon it, carrying pas-

sengers and produce to the port. There is little doubt, therefore, that the town of Aziziyé will rapidly increase, and the port of Souda become one of the most important in the Eastern Mediterranean. The advantages of the port of Souda over that of Syra, as a port of call, are considerable, not the least being the shortening by several leagues of the voyage to India *viâ* the Suez Canal. A profitable trade, too, will be opened to British merchants by shipping goods direct to Souda, whence they will be carried, by smaller craft, to all the islands of the Archipelago.

The port of Rhodes, as well as those of Gallipoli in Thrace, Salonica in Macedonia, Avlona in Middle Albania, Salahora and Prevesa in Epirus, Volo in Thessaly, Samsoun and Trebizond in Asia Minor, and Alexandretta in Syria, would all be benefited by the expenditure of capital on harbour improvements, which again would return large interest to investors.

The least acquaintance with the trade of the Empire will make it, at once, evident how serious is the disadvantage to commerce, and even to the Customs' revenue of the Government, which is caused by the want of such accommodation as I have referred to. The trade between Turkey and other countries has been, for some years past,

assuming considerable proportions. In 1852, it was estimated that the total value of imports into, and exports from, Turkey amounted to £20,000,000; whereas, in 1862, the annual trade of Turkey with foreign countries amounted to £48,000,000, and that between the provinces to £20,000,900; giving a total of £68,000,000 per annum. Between the years 1862 and 1872, the trade has continued to steadily increase. Thus, it will be apparent how great must necessarily be the loss to all engaged in this rapidly growing commerce, while the Government itself suffers pecuniarily in a like degree.

Fortunately for Constantinople, the unrivalled physical features of the port—one of the finest natural harbours in the world—lessen, to some extent, the practical disadvantages of all this; but, still, what remain are serious enough to entail much inconvenience, as the warehouse accommodation at present existing is only that afforded by the scanty "sheds" of the Custom-house. A practical bonding system introduced into Constantinople and the principal outports would give a further impetus to Turkish trade. It would encourage imports; and besides being, as I have already said, a great boon to merchants, would materially add to the Customs' revenue,

by aiding in its just collection. A good dock, surrounded by a range of bonding warehouses in the Golden Horn, would be a public work of which the Sultan might well feel proud; and its existence would prove to the friends of Turkey in the West that she had really entered on a career of substantial progress.

Commercially speaking, a soundly-planned scheme to supply this great want would be one of the best that could be submitted to the public. In the first place, the facilities afforded by the natural characteristics of the port—particularly in its capacity of containing whole fleets of vessels safely anchored alongside the quays in full depth of water—would render the work comparatively inexpensive, while it cannot be doubted that the whole of the Powers would readily consent to such a scale of wharfage dues as should leave a good profit on the capital employed. Of course, the advantages which such a scheme, properly carried out, must give to Constantinople, would equally apply if extended, in a proportionate scale, to the other ports. For the capital, however, it is *the* want of the day.

CHAPTER XIII.

PUBLIC WORKS.

IN the previous chapters, I have pointed out some of those Public Works which Turkey needs. I shall probably be asked, as I have frequently been asked, why does not Turkey construct her own Public Works? The answer may probably appear strange to an English merchant or a holder of English Consols, but still the answer really is, that in Turkey the interest on money is so great, and fortunes are so readily made in financial enterprises that local capitalists do not care to support industrial undertakings.*

* In reference to the rates of interest in Turkey, much valuable information was obtained by His Excellency Lord Dalling and Bulwer, when Ambassador at Constantinople. The inquiry directed by His Excellency on the subject, to the English Consuls in Turkey, was,—"Do farmers borrow money commonly in anticipation of their crops? How are the advances made, and are losses often incurred by the lender?"

Six or ten per cent. is not sufficiently tempting to a native saraff, as experience shows that the

The following are the official replies :—

ADRIANOPLE.—Mr. Vice-Consul Blunt: "Farmers quite frequently borrow money upon their crops. The ordinary rate of interest is two per cent. a month (twenty-four per cent. per annum), and even higher than that. Often the money is secured by other responsible persons becoming security, and by pledges of personal property. Losses are seldom incurred by the lenders."

ARTA.—Mr. Acting-Consul Caravias: "The common rate of interest is two per cent. a month. Such loans or advances are always secured on the crop, and losses are rarely incurred by the lenders."

CAVALLA.—Mr. Vice-Consul Maling: "From fifteen to thirty per cent. are the rates of interest charged by merchants; the crop being pledged for the advances, and the security valid, losses are seldom incurred. Money-lenders charge the peasantry five to seven per cent. per month, and realize in this way enormous gains."

CONSTANTINOPLE.—Mr. Consul-General Cumberbatch: "A farmer who requires money to carry on his pursuits, sells his produce before he realises it, at a certain price, which is always much below what he could obtain for it in the market; and thereby loses on an average from twenty to thirty per cent., the saraff taking care, by giving himself a very large margin, to secure himself against eventualities."

CYPRUS.—Mr. Vice-Consul White: "The custom of borrowing money in anticipation of the crops is common. The rate of interest varies from twelve to twenty per cent.; few losses are incurred."

DARDANELLES.—Mr. Acting Consul Raby: "Farmers commonly borrow money in anticipation, and on security of their crops;

existing financial companies return from sixteen to thirty-three per cent. per annum. The *Levant Herald* (Nov. 6, 1871), alluding to the opening of the *Banque de Constantinople*, says :—"The liquidation of the banking company of Syngros, Coroneo and Co.,which precedes the opening of the *Banque de Constantinople*, is now virtually concluded, and the *commanditaires* may withdraw their capital in full on the 31st Dec, plus a dividend of forty-four per cent. for the year. This bank, whose successful career is now brought to a close, was established in October, 1868. In the

fifteen, and even twenty-five per cent. interest being charged for a few months. The lender very seldom incurs any losses."

DIARBEKHR.—Mr. Consul Taylor: "Capitalists advance money on the crops, charging two to three per cent. interest per month; losses are rare."

GALLIPOLI.—Mr. Acting Vice-Consul Whitaker: "As a rule, the farmers in this province all borrow money on their crops. The rate of interest is generally twenty per cent., and the farmers are very well pleased to borrow at this rate. Losses must be very rare, as I have never either experienced or heard of others suffering any."

JANINA.—Mr. Vice-Consul Stuart: "Interest is two and a-half, three, and four per cent. a month. The advances are always secured upon the crops, and losses are but rarely incurred by the lenders."

SALONICA.—Mr. Consul Wilkinson: "Farmers borrow money in anticipation of their crops. The rate of interest usually charged is seldom less than twenty per cent."

first year, it divided amongst its shareholders twenty-three per cent.; in the second, thirty-two per cent.; and, as mentioned above, it winds up with a distribution of forty-four per cent., making an average of thirty-three per cent. on the three years." The *Turquie* also says upon this subject: "Après de tels bénéfices, peut-on franchement blâmer les maisons de banque de ne pas encourager le commerce et l'industrie?"

The *Credit Général Ottoman* paid a dividend on last year's operations of something more than

Sayada.—Mr. Consul Zarb: "Money is lent to the cultivators at the rate of five per cent. per month; the advances are always secured on the crops, and losses by the lenders are very rare."

Smyrna.—Mr. Consul Blunt: "The native cultivators always require advances in anticipation of their crops, at a nominal rate of interest, say one and a-half to two per cent per month; but it is actually more. The title-deeds of the farm are transferred to the lender in the Turkish Court, under the title of *istilall*, or mortgage."

Tripoli.—Mr. Consul-General Herman: "Almost the totality of them (the merchants) derive their chief sources of profit from lending money on pledges, on which they levy a rate of interest of four to six per cent. per month (forty-eight to seventy-two per cent. per annum), and sometimes more."

Volo.—Mr. Vice-Consul Suter: "Loans to the growers are secured by pledging the produce, and are not often attended with loss. The rates of interest are never less than twelve, and frequently more than twenty per cent. per annum."

twenty per cent., besides placing £T.11,718 to the statutory reserve fund, which now amounts to £T.18,132, and also placing £T.36,721 to the credit of an "extraordinary" reserve fund, now amounting to £T.48,637. The net profits for the year, earned on transactions aggregating £T.85,842,334, amounted to £T.234,377. The *Société Générale de l'Empire Ottoman*, in its report of May, 1870, announced the complete repayment—less a fraction—of the entire capital, in dividends, within the short period of five years, besides placing £122,110 to the reserve. The Imperial Ottoman Bank does not, it is true, pay such high dividends; but neither does the Bank of England pay such high dividends as the London Joint Stock Banks. Four years ago, one of the most astute Greek merchants in London mentioned to me that he had invested £10,000 in Ottoman Bank shares, which he intended to hold for at least ten years, believing them to be an excellent investment. This gentleman, doubtless, had more knowledge of the resources and probable future of Turkey than English investors usually possess.

It is a good deal the fashion in England to talk largely of the "risk" of investing money in Turkey; but most of those who speak thus know

little or nothing of the country. Where have the vast majority of fortunes been made by Trieste, Leghorn, Marseilles, Genoa, and Anglo-Greek merchants, if not in the Levant? If it be so dangerous to invest money in transactions with Constantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, or Beyrout, why do so many of the wealthiest French and Italian firms establish branches in these places? and how is it that they, almost without exception, realise such large and speedy fortunes? It is true that Galata, perhaps, is less commercially exact than Lombard Street; Smyrna, in the same respect, will not bear comparison with Liverpool; nor is a Lebanon silk-grower, at all times, as ready as a Yorkshire wool-stapler to "meet his little bill." Nevertheless, there are, throughout the Levant, very few ultimate losses in trade, and exceedingly little of that deliberate fraud which is to be met with, more or less, in every European city. As a rule, the Turk is, by nature, a truthful and an honest man.

Notwithstanding the high rates of interest that can be obtained for money in Turkey, the local public, however, have recently shown an inclination to embark capital in industrial enterprises. A considerable amount of the capital for the Roumelian railways was subscribed in Galata

and Stamboul, while all the shares of the Constantinople Tramways Company were locally taken up. Everyone, who has a personal knowledge of Turkey, and knows the large profits which, I have said, are there realised by banking and commercial operations, will fully understand the significance of this fact, and recognise in it the commencement of that good time, so long hoped for, when native wealth will no longer be withheld from native industry, but be used in aid of reproductive public works, which, in their turn, by adding to the producing power of the country, will still further enrich those by whom such works shall be supported. That the industry and capital of Turkey itself are, as yet, fully capable of promoting and undertaking such enterprises, I do not, for a moment, mean to assert. On the contrary, for a long time to come, the Public Works of the Empire, to be successful and profitable, must be carried out by the aid of foreign capital and energy; but the eagerness with which the shares of the Roumelian Railways and the Constantinople Tramways have been taken up, warrants the belief that any well-digested scheme for public improvements would now meet with such local support as, a few years since, could not be obtained.

There is no doubt that the want of confidence which so long existed, both at home and abroad, in Turkish industrial enterprises, is much owing to the ill-considered manner in which concessions for public works were, at one time, granted by the Porte. In fact, after the Crimean War, Turkey appeared to be, as it were, a vast garden of flowers to those industrious bees of the West who then swarmed on the sunny banks of the Bosphorus. The official bureaux of the Sultan's Ministers were besieged by clamorous supplicants for exclusive privileges to do certain things for the public good. Docks, wharves, warehouses, roads, railways, telegraphs, light-houses, canals, manufactories, gas-works, water-works—all were promised, if the Government would only concede the privilege of founding, making, and creating to the multitude of seekers who had found their way to the Golden Horn. Whereupon, concessions were granted with no sparing hand, and Lombard Street was forthwith flooded with projects as incongruous in their character as the impossibility of supplying the means was apparent. Men of substance naturally declined to connect themselves with such an unsatisfactory state of things, until, at length, those who had either money or credit to

lose turned instinctively from every proposition which bore the name of Ottoman.

By degrees, too, the Turkish Government began to realise the fact that the greater number of those who held concessions were absolutely unable to do anything towards their fulfilment, and, in 1865, the Porte wisely made the lodging of caution-money a condition precedent to the granting of any fresh concession whatever. Since that date, the Government very properly refuse to concede valuable privileges unless to associations or individuals whose ability to perform what they promise is well and thoroughly known. There is, therefore, the security that, in any concession now granted, the basis on which the success of the enterprise rests, will have been, first, maturely and carefully considered.

The public works of which Turkey stands in need are, as I have so often stated, both numerous and important. Her mountain ranges are covered with forests fitted for all the purposes of modern trade; her vast mineral resources of coal and iron, copper and lead, as well as the ores of many of the more valuable metals, are lying dormant and unheeded; her fertile plains and genial slopes are, in many districts, untilled and fallow; her splendid waterfalls expend their force in

seething foam, instead of contributing to the necessities of modern civilization; her rivers "snagged;" her harbours what nature made them—nothing more; her roads, in many instances, but the tracks over which pass, with difficulty, the donkey and the camel.

Here, then, is a vast field for engineering skill and industrial enterprise which will amply remunerate any amount of labour and capital expended. Good roads and inexpensive railways are sadly wanted to improve the communications between existing business centres, and open up vast tracts of country which have, at present, no outlet for their products. The obstacles to the navigation of many rivers demand removal, so as to facilitate the transit of produce from the interior. Wharves require to be built to save costly transhipment of goods; tracts of country to be drained in order to bring them into proper condition for the growth of cotton. Towns have to be lighted and cleansed; agriculture and manufactures encouraged; mines to be worked — in short, a powerful and influential agency is required which shall charge itself with the mission of letting capital into, and the great natural wealth out of the dominions of the Sultan, on such terms as will conduce to the benefit of the country and the interest of those engaged in such an enterprise.

The creation of such an agency would be a very simple matter, and those who carried it out would not only deserve well of the country, but also secure an ample recompense for their energy and perseverance. The Pagoda tree still flourishes in the East. It has, ere now, been shaken by some of our adventurous countrymen, but it yet bears golden fruit. I have pointed out where it is to be found.

APPENDIX.

Law granting to Foreigners the right of holding real property in the Ottoman Empire.

With the view of developing the prosperity of the country, putting an end to the difficulties, abuses, and uncertainties which arise out of the exercise of rights of property by foreigners in the Ottoman Empire, and completing, by a precise regulation, the guarantees due to financial interests and administrative action, the following legislative enactments have been decreed by order of His Imperial Majesty the Sultan :—

Art. 1. Foreigners are admitted, by the same title as Ottoman subjects, and without any other condition, to the enjoyment of the right of possessing real property in town or country in any part of the Ottoman Empire, except the province of Hedjaz, on submitting to the laws and regulations which bind Ottoman subjects themselves, as hereinafter provided.

This enactment does not concern Ottoman subjects by birth who have changed their nationality, to whom a special law will apply.

Art. 2. Foreigners who are owners of real property, urban or rural, are consequently assimilated to Ottoman subjects in everything which concerns such real property.

The legal effect of this assimilation is: 1st. To oblige them to conform to all police or municipal laws and regulations which do now or shall hereafter affect the enjoyment, transmission, alienation, and mortgaging of lands. 2nd. To pay all charges and contributions, of whatever form or denomination, to which real property in town or country is or shall hereafter be made liable. 3rd. To render them directly subject to the jurisdiction of the Ottoman civil tribunals in every dispute relating to landed property and real actions of every kind, whether as plaintiffs or defendants, even when both parties are foreign subjects; in every respect by the same title and under the same conditions and the same forms as Ottoman owners, and without their being entitled in such cases to any advantage on account of their personal nationality, but with the reservation of the immunities attaching to their persons and their moveable effects under the terms of the Treaties.

Art. 3. In case of the insolvency of an owner of real property, the assignees under his insolvency shall apply to the proper authority and the Ottoman civil courts for an order for the sale of such of the insolvent's real possessions as are, according to their nature and the law, liable to the owner's debts.

The same course shall be taken when a foreigner obtains from any foreign court a judgment against another foreigner being an owner of real property. For the ex-

ecution of such judgment upon the real estate of his debtor, he shall apply to the competent Ottoman authority for an order for the sale of the property liable to the owner's debts, and the judgment shall not be executed by the authorities and the Ottoman tribunals until they have satisfied themselves that the property proposed to be sold really belongs to the category of those possessions which can be sold to pay the owner's debts.

Art. 4. A foreign subject shall have the power of disposing by gift or will of such real possessions as the law allows to be disposed of under that form.

With respect to such real estate as he shall not have disposed of, or which the law does not permit him to dispose of by gift or will, the succession thereto will be regulated by the Ottoman law.

Art. 5. Every foreign subject shall enjoy the benefit of the present law as soon as the Power whose subject he is shall have assented to the arrangements proposed by the Sublime Porte for the exercise of the right of property.

Constantinople, 7 Sepher, 1284, (June 18, 1867.)

PROTOCOL.

The law which grants foreigners the right of holding real property does not infringe on any of the immunities secured by Treaties, and which will continue to cover the person and moveable effects of foreigners who become owners of realty.

As the exercise of this right of property ought to induce foreigners to settle in greater numbers in the Ottoman

territory, the Imperial Government feels it its duty to anticipate and provide for the difficulties to which the application of the law might give rise in certain localities. Such is the object of the arrangements which follow.

The dwelling of every person living on Ottoman soil being inviolable, and no one being allowed to enter therein without the consent of the master, unless in virtue of orders emanating from a competent authority and in the presence of the magistrate or functionary invested with the necessary powers, the dwelling of a foreign subject is equally inviolable, conformably with the Treaties; and no peace-officer can enter except in the presence of the consul or the delegate of the consul of the Power to which such foreigner is a subject.

By "dwelling" is understood a house of residence and its appurtenances, that is to say, the offices, courts, gardens, and contiguous enclosures, to the exclusion of every other part of the property.

In localities distant less than nine hours from the consular residence, the peace-officers cannot enter a foreigner's dwelling without the assistance of the consul, as stated above. The consul, on his side, is expected to lend his immediate assistance to the local authority, so that there shall not elapse more than six hours between the time when notice is given to him and the departure of himself or his delegate, in order that the action of the authorities may never be suspended for more than twenty-four hours.

In localities distant nine hours' journey or more from the residence of the consular agent, the peace-officers

can, on the requisition of the local authority and in the presence of three members of the council of elders of the commune, enter the dwelling of a foreign subject without the presence of the consular agent, but only in case of urgency and to make investigations respecting crimes of murder, attempted murder, arson, robbery with violence, burglary, armed rebellion, base coining, and this whether the crime was committed by a foreign subject or by an Ottoman subject, and whether it took place in the foreigner's dwelling, or outside it, or in any other place.

These regulations are applicable only to the parts of the property which constitute the dwelling as defined above. Outside the dwelling the police shall have free and unrestricted action; but where a person accused of a crime or misdemeanour is arrested, and such person is a foreign subject, the immunities attaching to his person shall be observed.

The functionary or officer employed to make the domiciliary visit under the exceptional circumstances above described, and the members of the council of elders who assist, are required to prepare a *procès verbal* of the domiciliary visit and to communicate it immediately to the superior authority under whom they act, who shall transmit it without delay to the nearest consular agent.

A special order will be promulgated by the Sublime Porte regulating the manner in which the local police are to act in the different cases above mentioned.

In localities distant more than nine hours from the residence of the consular agent, and where the law of the

judicial organisation of *vilaets* is in force, foreign subjects shall be judged, without the assistance of the consular delegate, by the council of elders discharging the functions of justices of the peace, and by the tribunal of the *caza*, in disputes involving sums not exceeding a thousand piastres, or condemnation in a fine of not more than five hundred piastres.

Foreign subjects will have in every case the right of appealing to the tribunal of the *sandjak* from sentences so passed; and the appeal shall be heard and decided with the assistance of the consul, in conformity with the Treaties.

An appeal shall always suspend execution.

In no case shall the forcible execution of sentences pronounced under the conditions above specified take place except in the presence of the consul or his delegate.

The Imperial Government will issue a law determining the rules of procedure to be observed by the parties in the application of the preceding provisions.

Foreign subjects in any locality are authorised to put themselves voluntarily under the jurisdiction of the council of elders or the courts of the *cazas*, without the consul's assistance, in disputes within the jurisdiction of those councils or courts, saving the right of appeal to the *sandjak*, which appeal shall be heard and judged with the assistance of the consul or his delegate. The foreign subject's consent to have his cause tried without the assistance of the consul ought in every case to be given in writing, and before any proceedings are taken in the cause.

It is to be well understood that none of these restrictions relate to processes or to questions affecting real property, which will be tried and decided according to the conditions established by the law.

The right of defence and publicity of trial are assured in every case to foreigners who appear before Ottoman tribunals as well as to Ottoman subjects.

The preceding arrangements will remain in force until the revision of the old Treaties, a revision respecting which the Sublime Porte will hereafter endeavour to bring about an understanding between itself and the friendly Powers.

THE END.

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